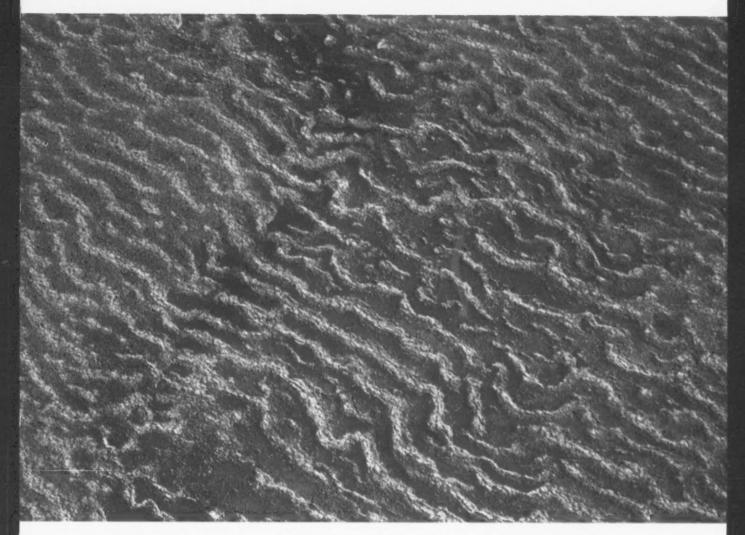


OF THE HUDSON BAY LOWLAND

JOHN L. RILEY





WETLANDS

OF THE HUDSON BAY LOWLAND

an ontario overview

John L.Riley





A partnership project of the Nature Conservancy of Canada and the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources

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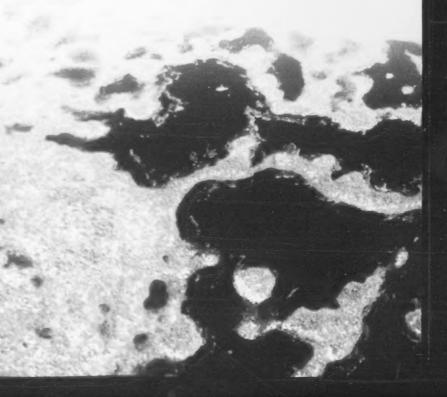
FRONT COVER. Hudson Bay Lowland, 27km from Hudson Bay, 1km west of Winisk River.

BACK COVER. Wetland 33km west of North Point, James Bay; net fen of open pools terraced with treed and open shrub fen nibs.

TITLE PAGE. Open ribbed fen, southwest James Bay interior.

BELOW. Southern interior bog and fen plateau on higher ground between Albany and Moose basins in Kinoje Lake area. **The Nature Conservancy of Canada** is a non-profit, non-advocacy organization committed to land conservation and the preservation of Canada's biodiversity, based on best available science and in partnership with many organizations and agencies. Since 1962, NCC and its partners and supporters have protected more than 800,000 hectares (2 million acres) across Canada.

Under Ontario's Far North Land Use Planning Initiative, First Nation communities are leading the development of community-based land use plans and working jointly with the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources (MNR). Land use planning will enable First Nations in the Far North, along with Ontario, to dedicate areas for protection and to identify areas suitable for sustainable economic development opportunities. To support this planning initiative, the MNR's Far North Branch is working with partners to determine information needs, establish priorities, and support scientific inventory and mapping of the region's biodiversity and natural resources. The Far North Natural Heritage Project, led by the MNR's Parks and Protected Areas Policy Section, is part of these ongoing efforts. The report "Wetlands of the Hudson Bay Lowland: An Ontario Overview" contributes to our knowledge of Ontario's Far North, and is one product of a creative partnership between Parks and Protected Areas Policy Section and the Nature Conservancy of Canada.



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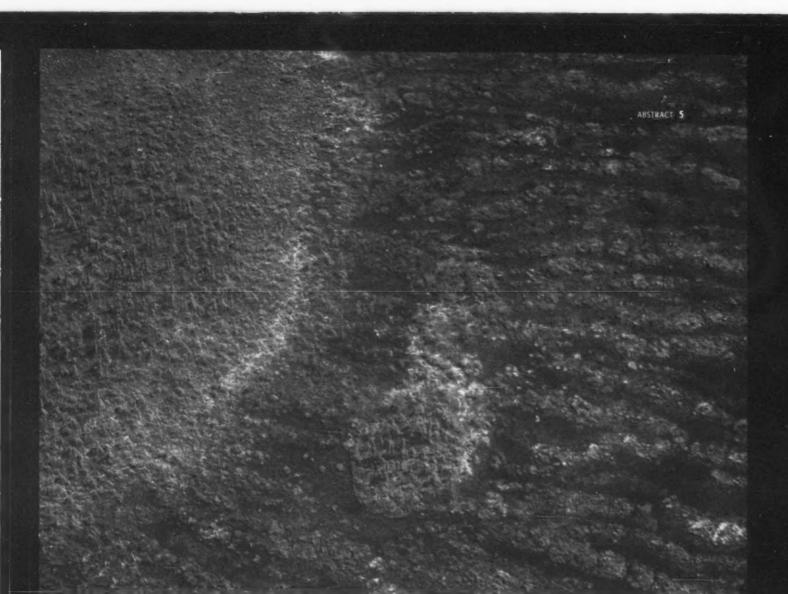
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Bog on left, flanked by fen drainway on right transitional to open bog, southwest interior.

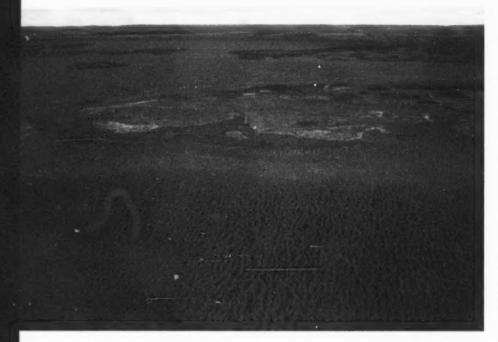
Abstract

The Hudson Bay Lowland (or Hudson Plain or Platform) supports the world's third largest wetlands, and the largest in North America. Eighty-three percent of this distinct geological province and ecozone lies in the Province of Ontario, Canada. The Lowland also lies at the core of the world's largest intact boreal landscape, and is one of the world's densest accumulations of peat, measurably cooling the global climate by sequestering atmospheric carbon.

More than 85% of the Lowland in Ontario is either mineral wetland or organic peatland, much of it underlain by permafrost and most of it untreed. Overall, it is a clay-based terrain of flat plains and moraines that emerged from the sea over the last 6000 years (and is emerging still), evolving

an unparalleled array of bogs, fens, swamps and permafrost peatlands, and along its 1290-km ocean coast, the same flat gradients give rise to an incomparable breadth and range of intertidal and supratidal marshes.

The Lowland's ecological significance and the imminent pressures it faces for mineral and energy development, underscore the need for enhanced natural-resource knowledge in support of sound land-use decisions, community wellbeing and superior environmental assessments. This study focuses on the region's dominant wetland terrain and provides: a regional overview; descriptions of wetland types; analyses of ecological variation and succession; keys to wetland types; and a catalogue of summary field data.



Echoing River fens, western interior.

It incorporates published and unpublished surveys by numerous Lowland researchers and has at its core the original field data collected at;

- James Bay and Hudson Bay coastal wetlands from 1972 to 1976, supported by the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources (OMNR) and Environment Canada;
- interior peatlands and wetlands from 1976-1990, supported by the Ontario Geological Survey, Royal Ontario Museum, OMNR, and Environment Canada; and
- Kinoje Lake area, central Attawapiskat River area, Aquatuk Lake area, lower and coastal Shagamu River area, and elsewhere (1972 to 1990), supported by Environment Canada, Royal Ontario Museum, OMNR, and others.

Field survey methods included standard quadrat and transect surveys of both mineral and organic (>30cm peat) wetlands. Rapid reconnaissances were made of large homogeneous site types, measuring species cover values, surfacewater pH and temperature 10cm below surface water level, depth-to-water, peat depth, and substrate type. More than 300 of these relevees were later analyzed. The strongest vegetation ordinations were correlated with these measures, and

with site elevation, distance from coast, latitude and longitude. The strongest correlations with vegetation variability were water pH (surrogate for nutrient status) and depth-to-water (surrogate for saturation and root aeration), which parallel the dominant successional themes and which inform an under-

standing of wetland patterns. Peat depths increase with distance from the coast, as peat accumulation exceeds peat decomposition. Water pH decreases with increasing peat depth and with increasing depth-to-water. The major successions are from marsh and meadow marsh (coastal), to fen and bog (interior), and to palsa and peat plateau (northward). These are complicated locally by multidirectional, cyclic and collapse sequences, such as ice formation and collapse, and water-flow changes, which elaborate on the major regional themes of succession.

General regional wetland descriptions and classification are summarized, building on Ontario past practice in wetland surveys and mapping, using a nested, hierarchical classification that applies at scales ranging from dominance-type relevees and habitat surveys, to regional remote-sensing and data roll-ups. The approach is based on vegetation composition and physiognomy, and catalogues six formations (swamp, marsh, meadow marsh, fen, bog, and peat plateau and palsa), as well as subformations, physiognomic groups (35), and dominance types and site types that are catalogued. Wetland succession is related to wetland variability, pattern, stratigraphy and permafrost, and is discussed both in general and for specific parts of the Hudson Bay Lowland.

Acknowledgements

The field surveys on which this overview is based occurred through the generous assistance of many agencies and individuals. The Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources (OMNR), and its former Centre for Remote Sensing and Forest Research Branches, and the current Ontario Parks, and the Canadian Forestry Service, Canadian Wildlife Service and Lands Directorate of Environment Canada provided field support. The individuals of these agencies extended to me great collegiality over the years in accessing the Lowlands, and I am most grateful to S. Pala, A.N. Boissonneau, R. Mussakowski and A. Jano, former Ontario Centre of Remote Sensing; J.K. Jeglum and R.A. Sims, Canadian Forestry Service; D.W. Cowell and W. Glooschenko, Lands Directorate,; R.K. Ross and R.I. Morrison, Canadian Wildlife Service; and N.T. Roulet, McGill University and Northern Wetlands Study (NOWES). Special thanks to Gabriel Fireman of Attawapiskat and Toby Hunter of Fort Severn for field support. Above all, I am indebted to John Jeglum

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The final preparation of this report was supported by the Far North Branch of OMNR, Rob Davis and Bill Crins of Ontario Parks, who continued the earlier encouragements of OMNR's Art Currie and Bill Ringham. Thanks as well to Bill Crins, Ontario Parks, and Wasyl Bakowsky, Ontario Natural Heritage Information Centre, for reviewing draft manuscripts. I am particularly grateful to Judie Shore for her report design and production.

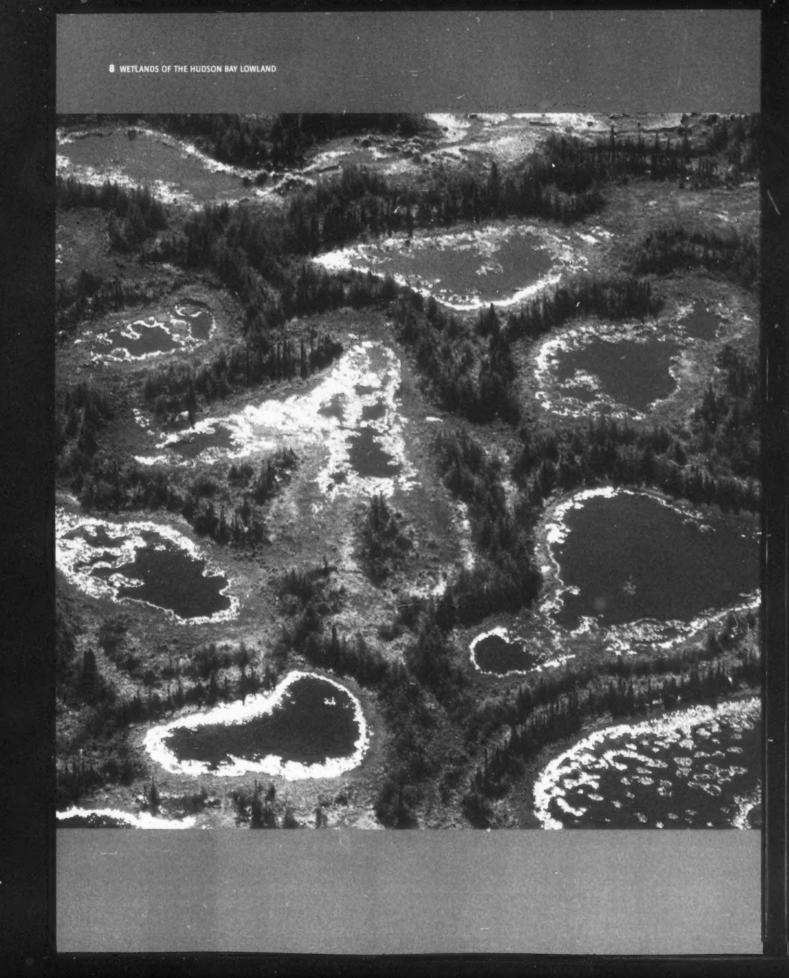
Participation on the Ontario Far North Science Advisory Panel in 2009-2010 assisted greatly by challenging me to recall and re-learn aspects of the Lowland from different points of view. In this regard I would particularly like to thank Nigel Roulet, McGill University, for his expertise on the carbon dynamics of peatlands; Sean Thomas, University of Toronto, for his insight into boreal forest dynamics; Tim Lynham, Environment Canada, for his appreciation of wild-fire ecology in the north; John Gunn, Laurentian University, for his hydrological perspectives; and Ken Abraham, OMNR, for sharing his experience regarding wildlife.

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Art Boisonneau and author in the field.

All photos by J.L. Riley except for photo above and on page 34 (left), by S.Pala.





Regional Overview

The dominant terrain of the Lowland is its spectacular patterned palette of coastal wetlands and interior peatlands, variably arrayed across a vast flat clay plain.

Open graminoid (net) fen, with 25% fen pools and ponds, and 25% treed permafrost fen ribs central interior.

Dominating Canada's boreal latitudes are a quarter of the globe's wetlands and more than a third of its peatlands (Taylor and Smith 1980, Zoltai 1979, Gore 1983). Thirty years ago, in an era of concern for energy supply, Ontario's peat reserves were inferred to be in the order of 110 billion tonnes, equivalent to 70 billion barrels of oil, almost all in the Hudson Bay Lowland (Monenco 1981) (Fig. 1). Now, in an era of concern about greenhouse-gas emissions and climate change, the same Lowland peatlands are viewed as immense stores of carbon (more than 35GteC, gigatonnes equivalent carbon), much more than the rest of Ontario's natural ecosystems combined (FNSAP 2010; Roulet, Gray, pers. comm. 2009). Both of these modern interests contrast markedly with the prevailing opinion only fifty years ago, when Coombs was typical in his remarks about the "physical unattractiveness of its terrain, a poor climate, and a lack of natural resources" (1952).

Eighteen percent of Canada is wetland, of which three-quarters are peatland (NWWG 1988). More than 85% of the Hudson Bay Lowland Ecozone is covered by wetlands (Canada 1974). Well over 90% of its 1290-km Ontario coastline is coastal marshland and meadow marsh (Glooschenko 1980a,b). However, the vast majority (more than

four-fifths) of Lowland wetlands are peatlands, wetlands with more than 30 to 40cm of accumulated peat. The Lowland is part of the Far North of Ontario, and the Provincial Government has committed itself to conserve and protect more than half of the region, focusing on the benefits of its ecological services, including its biological diversity and its storage of carbon. (Ontario 2010).

The dominant terrain of the Lowland is its spectacular patterned palette of coastal wetlands and interior peatlands, variably arrayed across a vast flat clay plain. Slowly, over millennia, peat has accumulated, from 1 to 3m+ deep, in habitats such as bog, fen, marsh, swamp and frozen palsa and peat plateau. The region experiences one of the globe's fastest rates of postglacial uplift (isostatic rebound) and, as it rises, the slope of the land flattens, thus retaining more water and peat (Gough 1998). Tree cover diminishes northward and coastward, from closed forests at the region's southern edge, along narrow treed river levees and rare uplands, down to a vague tree-line that tracks the Hudson Bay coast at a distance of 5 to 50km and more inland.

The extent of major habitats in the Hudson Bay Lowland

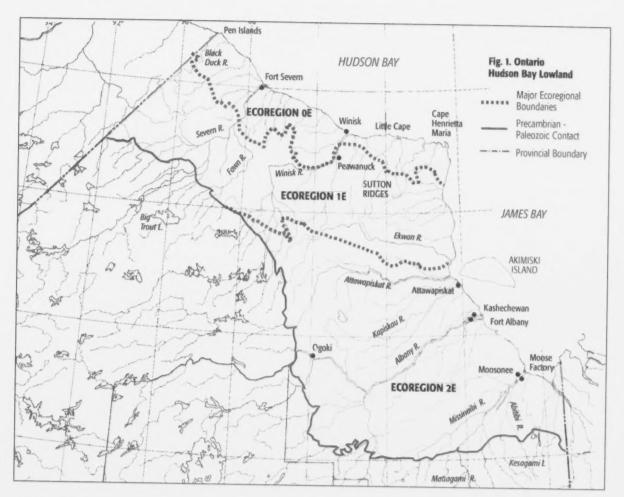
Estimated from satellite imagery, airphotos and field experience (Riley 1982, 1989). The Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources is currently updating these provincial land-cover estimates for the 250.000-km² region.

Water (lakes, rivers, ponds) 7% Marsh (freshwater and tidal) 4% Bog and fen 60%

Peat plateau, palsa and tundra 12%

Swamp, woodland and forest 15% Rock barren, burn and Early regeneration 2%

Parallel beachridge swarms, with inter-ridge peatlands, inland from Hudson Bay.



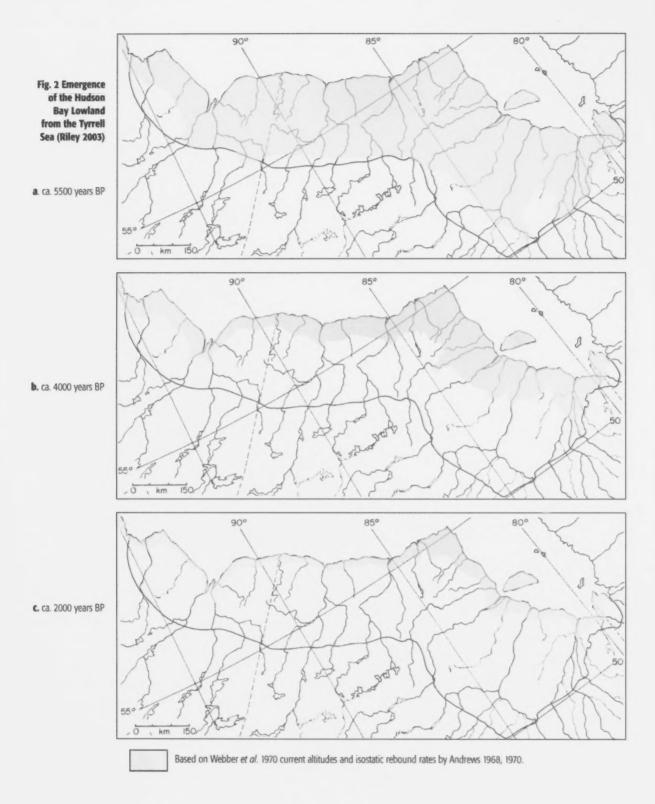
GEOLOGY

More than a quarter of Ontario, in a broad band 150-300km wide, lies in the Hudson Bay Lowland. The Lowland is a Paleozoic (limestone) and partly Phanerozoic geologic province surrounded by the Canadian Shield. The land is undergoing North America's fastest rates of isostatic rebound after its long depression by the Laurentide ice sheet, at rates up to 1.2m per century over the last 1000 years (Webber et al. 1970). The last millennium, for example, has revealed an estimated 30km-wide band of newly colonizable coast at Cape Henrietta Maria, this at a rate now much diminished from that of the immediate postglacial period. The Lowland emerged above the postglacial Tyrrell Sea as it drained down to conform to the modern Hudson and James bays over the past 6000 years (Fig. 2; Webber et al. 1970; Andrews 1968,1970; Prest 1970). All of the Lowland emerged first as a dynamic tidal landscape,

supporting mineral wetlands that gradually succeeded to organic peatlands as the land rose and the coast receded (McAndrews *et al.* 1982).

This emergence revealed sea-bottom substrates that are almost universally marine silts and clays, often to depth, but also deposited only shallowly on higher till moraines, such as between the Moose and Albany rivers, along the Manitoba border in the west, and on the slopes of the Sutton Ridges, the Precambrian outlier that intrudes above the Lowland in the Hawley, Sutton and Aquatuk lake area (Bostock 1971). Elsewhere, along river valleys and on seawashed subglacial deposits and beachridges, there are also pockets of more permeable sorted materials but these too are usually veiled or underlain by strata of silt and clay.

¹ 'Hudson Bay Lowland' corresponds to the geologic province of the same name (Norris *et al.* 1967, Sanford *et al.* 1968). Its geologic boundary is generalized as the Hudson Plain or Hudson Bay Lowland Ecozone (ESWG 1995, Crins *et al.* 2009).



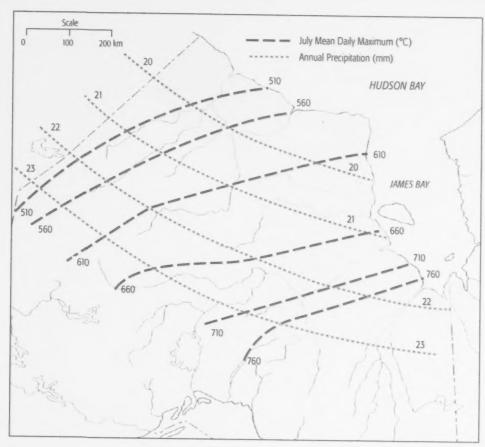


Fig. 3 General **Climatic Trends**

Precipitation and temperature isolines are generally at right angles to each other in the Hudson Bay Lowland, resulting in the strong regional gradients. The HBL becomes cooler south to north, and drier southeast to northwest (data from Chapman and Thomas 1968, Sims et al. 1979).

These predominantly impermeable substrates hold water on the surface and result in slow lateral drainage down almost imperceptible slopes (av. 65cm/km in the Moose River basin and 75 to 100cm/km from Big Trout Lake to Hudson Bay). Thus arose the uniquely large and inaccessible wetland and peatland ecosystems of the region, flourishing on a generally flat plain that is only slightly elevated above (but hydrologically distinct from) the other major hydrologic systems of the region, which are its downcut river valleys that drain some of Canada's largest rivers, like the Albany, Moose, Attawapiskat and Severn. It is along this separate, downcut drainage network, and along the ocean coasts, that more youthful, dynamic, mineral wetlands dominate.

In the immediate postglacial period, emergent areas were better drained by a steeper, pre-rebound topography, and were subject to the warmer and drier conditions of the Hypsithermal period (ca. 7200 to 4200 yBP (years Before Present; Terasmae 1968). The subsequent cooling of the climate and decrease in topographical gradient encouraged the

expansion and current dominance of the landscape by wetland and peatlands, as much as 90% by some calculations (Ketcheson and Jeglum 1972). Such a "sea of peat" creates its own limiting environmental parameters by restricting nutrient availability and maintaining saturated conditions. This self-defining scenario is also influenced by the ability of Sphagnum to acidify water through the selective exchange of hydrogen ions for other cations (especially Ca++ and Mg++) (Shotyk 1988).

Pre-flying surveys of the Lowland were largely the domain of geologists, beginning with Low and Bell of the Geological Survey of Canada in 1886 (Bell 1887), and followed by survey geologists Dowling, Wilson, Boyd and McInnes. A typical comment on conditions away from the rivers is Bell's note on the lower Attawapiskat: "The Indians report the country as level and covered with sphagnum" (ibid.:23). Rock exposures and timber were their focus, and these were on the levees and islands, so there was little motivation to trek inland. However, on behalf of the Ontario Bureau of Mines,

J.B. Tyrrell traversed the region in 1912-1913 and, in 1924, Hawley followed up Dowlings' 1904 surveys of the Sutton Ridges (Hawley 1925). Tyrrell summed up the situation: "Great areas are...flat, and practically undrained, and such flat areas are now covered with peat bogs on which grow scattered forests of small stunted spruce and larch....All the evidence... pointed distinctly and conclusively to the fact that there are no rocky hills anywhere in [the] fifty-mile strip [along Hudson Bay]" (1913:173). Other major ground-based surveys were botanical, by the Arctic Institute of the Catholic University of America in the 1950s and 1960s, led by Lepage, Dutilly and Duman (references in Riley 2003). These too were water-based surveys, with any reconnaissance of the interior wetlands still a rarity during the growing season.

CLIMATE AND PERMAFROST

The water and carbon regimes of the region are strongly influenced by its subarctic climate, as are its ecosystems and wildlife. The region's south and west are strongly influenced by the continental climate of the North American interior but Hudson Bay and James Bay strongly cool and moisten the lands nearer the coasts. These two waterbodies freeze in winter, and half the offshore waters in some places between Fort Severn and Cape Henrietta Maria can still be covered by ice in late July (Danielson 1971, Rouse 1991, Gagnon and Gough 2005a,b). The summer position of North America's Arctic Front is forced south by the cold of Hudson Bay (Bryson 1966), which generates persistent onshore summer winds and land-sea breezes that lower temperatures, increase fog and reduce evapotranspiration rates. Similar maritime climates occur on the coasts of Labrador and the Aleutians, also the result of cold offshore waters. The cool, moist climate contributes to the rapid growth and longterm stability of wetland and peatlands.

Climatic trends are illustrated in Table 1 for two Lowland stations, compared with their nearest interior station on the Canadian Shield to the south, and Toronto (Fig. 3; see Mortsch 1990).

A widespread effect of climate is the occurrence of permafrost in the northern two-thirds of the Lowland (Fig. 4; Brown 1969, 1970, 1973; Zoltai 1974). Permafrost occurs in bedrock, soils and peat, but peat is the superior thermal insulator and conserves frost most effectively; the southern limit of near-sea-level permafrost occurs, continentally, in the peatlands of the James Bay lowland. Permafrost systems include, in mineral soils and rocklands, tundra- and ice-wedge polygons, stone circles, ice-laminated river levees, and frost boils. Permafrost systems in peatlands include palsas (raised mounds of expanded peat) and coalesced palsa fields (peat plateaus), thermokarst lake plains and, southward, treed bog islands and open pools.

Within 100km of Hudson Bay, permafrost underlies most landforms, and it extends north under the bay. Permafrost systems have an *active layer* in summer, a depth of thaw that permits plant growth and water flow and retention. Palsas and peat plateaus have active layers up to 35cm deep in summer, overlying 3m or more of frozen peat. Southward lies a zone of discontinuous permafrost, with more isolated features, such as palsas, peat plateaus and treed bog islands (Cowell *et al.* 1978). South again, such as in the Albany River basin, permafrost features are less frequent, and they are generally absent from the Moose basin. Seasonal frost (rather than permafrost) can occasionally persist from year to year based on local conditions; for example, the cold summer of 1918 had ice persisting through August within 1.1m of the surface as far south as Kapuskasing (Kirkconnell 1919).

Raised permafrost peatlands are frequently dominated by lichens, and their high light reflectance (albedo) helps main-

tain cold subsurface temperatures. Wildfires can remove lichen cover, lower albedo, and deepen the summer active layer. Climate warming and increased fire frequency can have similar effects, collapsing frozen terrain and levees, increasing runoff and erosion, and releasing stored carbon as emissions. Along Hudson Bay, permafrost deterioration is also exacerbated by overgrazing geese, a physical rooting that also reduces surface albedo and increases thaw.

	Mean daily temperature (°C)	Annual growing degree days >5°C	Mean annual precipitation (mm)	Annual days with precipitation
Winisk	-5.5	625	608	164
Big Trout Lake	-3.0	1025	581	161
Moosonee	-1,1	830	728	173
Cochrane	-0.6	1300	885	149
Toronto	7.3	2300	762	137

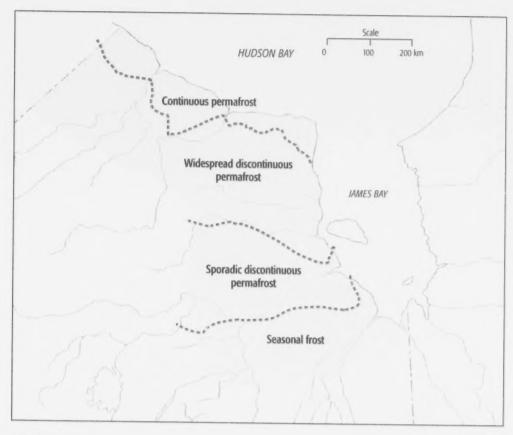


Fig. 4. Distribution of Permafrost

(Refer Fig. 20; and Benson 1973)

CARBON STORAGE

The peatlands in Ontario's Hudson Bay Lowland store as much carbon as all the other natural ecosystems of Ontario combined, likely in excess of 35 GteC, and sequestering about 3M tonnes annually (Roulet, Gray, pers. comm. 2009). The amount sequestered annually is equal to about a third of Ontario's current total carbon emissions (Gray, pers. comm., 2009). The Lowland is one of the Earth's major carbon storehouses, and there is growing documentation of the role that peatlands play in cooling the global climate. Change in its capacity to store or sequester carbon may result in unpredictable longterm effects. Climate change and human activities can alter wetlands, effect storage regimes, and release carbon to the atmosphere.

About a tenth of the globe's cooling benefits from peatlands comes from Ontario's Hudson Bay Lowland (Roulet, pers. comm, 2009). Northern peatlands as a whole cover about 3 to 5% of the land area of the globe but they store about 25% of all terrestrial carbon (Gorham 1991). These are some of the globe's highest carbon densities, and the Hudson Bay

Lowland is one of the densest of these concentrations, in the order of more than 150 to 200 kg/m 2 (Tarnocai *et al.* 2009). This is two to three times greater than the carbon stored in upland boreal forest or tropical rainforest. Estimates of current carbon accumulation in this region range between ~20 and 30 g Cm 2 / m 2 yr 1 (Gorham *et al.* 2003).

Peat depths vary in the Hudson Bay Lowland; bogs average 2.2m and, where they are frozen into peat plateaus closer to Hudson Bay, they average more than 3m (App. B). Fens are shallower, averaging 1.8m deep. The unparalleled scale and patterns of these interconnected surface waters, wetlands and peatlands attracted scientific attention to the Lowland as early as the 1960s, research that was fundamental to the understanding of Canada's wetlands (Sims et al. 1979).

Peat accumulates where primary production exceeds decomposition because oxidation is limited by resident water. Water also limits the diffusion of oxygen into the peat, resulting in less efficient anoxic decomposition, which stores carbon but also produces methane, a greenhouse gas.

If the water table in a peatland is close to the surface or if a peatland is dominated by plants such as sedges that can transport methane through the upper unsaturated—oxic zones of a peatland (e.g., wet graminoid fens), then methane emissions can range from 2 to 30g CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹. Some estimates suggest that northern peatlands account for ~10% of the total atmospheric burden of methane, as much as 30% of all natural sources (Denman et al. 2007).

Some peatlands are a net source of methane to the atmosphere, but others are an even more significant sink for carbon dioxide, another greenhouse gas. The storage of sequestered carbon is maintained in peatlands over thousands of years, long after a peatland's methane emissions have equilibrated with atmospheric concentrations of methane. Where peatlands are older than 300 to 500 years (i.e., succeeded to Sphagnum domination), as is the case with most peatlands in the Hudson Bay Lowland, then the sequestered carbon results in a net radiative cooling. This 'two-gas' role of peatlands - a sink for carbon dioxide but an emitter of atmospheric methane - makes them a unique ecosystem (Mortsch 1990). Methane is a more powerful radiative greenhouse gas than carbon dioxide but it has a much shorter atmospheric lifetime. Thus, methane is important in the short-term (<100 years) but the carbon dioxide sink is much more important in the long term (>300-400 years) (Frolking and Roulet 2007). Both gases must be considered in models that predict the carbon functions of peatlands, and different peatland types may function differently. At present, peatlands in the Lowland are a major net sink of carbon dioxide and a moderate source of methane emissions (Roulet et al. 1994).

In 1990 the Northern Wetlands Study measured emissions of methane, carbon dioxide and non-methane hydrocarbon along a 100km transect from Kinoje Lake to North Point (Klinger et al. 1994). They concluded that the "seasonal flux [of emissions]...and...net primary productivity...show systematic change along a successional sequence...consistent with patterns predicted from successional theory....Given this, it is likely that models of carbon trace gas flux based on succession models may be useful in predicting climate change-landscape change feedbacks." (ibid.) In order to develop such models for landscape change and successional sequences, standard vegetation terminology and mapping must be achieved at regional scales.

CLIMATE CHANGE

Even in the absence of industrial development in the region, Lowland ecosystems will change as the climate warms (Colombo *et al.* 2007, EPCCA 2009). In the past fifty years, precipitation has increased in the region and average air temperatures have risen by 0.3 to 0.4°C. While tundra bird populations are as yet unchanged (Cadman et al.2007), Polar Bear are losing weight (M.Obbard, pers. comm. 2009), and sea-run Brook Trout (Charr) have died in warmed waters (Gunn and Snucins 2010). Freeze-up is coming later, and break-up earlier, over the past few decades (Gough et al. 2004). It is predicted that, by 2050, temperatures and precipitation in the Hudson Bay Lowland will have increased enough to alter plant communities, degrade permafrost, lower water levels in lakes, rivers and wetlands, reduce ice cover on land and sea, and affect fish and wildlife and forest growth. While specific outcomes remain unpredictable, it is generally agreed that there has been no previous experience with such rapid rates of change.

The largest predicted temperature rise is for winter months, especially along the Hudson Bay coast. Hudson and James bays are the world's largest, cold, inland seas and they have major effects on regional and continental climate and weather. Reduced ice cover may result in increased solar warming (reduced albedo), warming the water in Hudson Bay. Precipitation along the coastlines of Hudson and James bays is also predicted to increase and, as with rising temperatures, the major effect is predicted to occur in winter.

Changes in water levels in peatlands (positive or negative) alter the ecological functions of wetlands, such as storage, sequestration, emission, cooling and habitat. Small changes in temperature may also have significant effects on snow cover and thaw depth (Maxwell 1992). Palsas, peat plateaus, tundra, ice-aggraded river levees and thermokarst lakes may be particularly susceptible. There are already visible collapse and accretion features across the Lowland, but it is not yet known to what degree they are associated with climate change. It is also difficult to predict the implications of these changes for the release of greenhouse gases (compare Tarnocai 2006, Dorrepaal *et al.* 2009, Laine *et al.* 1996), but the sensitivity of peatlands to water-level changes warrants caution regarding land uses and development that alter water flow or storage.

The impacts of climate change on northern forests are also unpredictable. Growth of boreal trees generally shows a positive trend with higher temperatures in the historical record (e.g., Briffa et al. 1995) but, beyond particular thresholds, there are also documented temperature-related growth declines (e.g., Barber et al. 2000). Negative impacts may also include drought stress on boreal trees, increased fire frequencies, and increased forest pests and pathogens.

Climate-envelope models have also predicted changes in forest composition (Malcolm et al. 2005).

Peatlands have been characterized as complex adaptive systems (Hilbert et al. 2000, Belyea and Baird 2006). Synergistic feedbacks in peatland systems can result in stable, self-regulating interactions between hydrology and peatland growth, resulting in positive carbon storage. However, it is not clear that these self-regulating mechanisms will be sustained at the predicted pace of climate change. As well, other as-yet-unforeseen forces may offset some other predicted impacts. For example, while global sea levels have risen about 0.2m in the past century (and are likely to rise three times as much in the next century), this predicted rate of sea-level rise is less than the present rate of postglacial uplift on the Lowland coast, so that sea-level effects on coastal wetlands may be less in the Lowland than elsewhere.

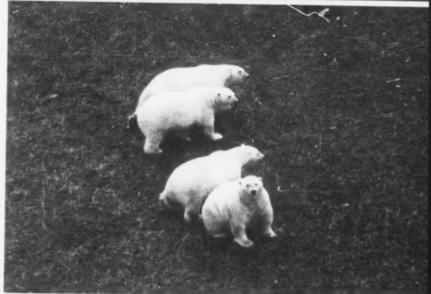
BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY

Wildlife remains abundant in the Hudson Bay Lowland and is of economic and cultural importance to its residents, who have relied on it for millennia. After European contact, species depending on wetlands and peatlands, such as beaver, caribou and marten, were significantly reduced in numbers. Some of the migratory birds that breed in, or migrate through its wetlands were also harvested heavily, here and elsewhere, reducing shorebird numbers in particular. In modern times, most species, such as beaver and marten, have recovered strongly, while others have not (Stewart 1981, Lytwyn 2002). The

reliance of Lowland residents on fish and wildlife has remained strong, almost 100g of wild protein per adult per day in 1990 (Berkes *et al.* 1994, 1995).

The Hudson Bay Lowland supports two types of caribou, the dispersed boreal-forest ecotype in its southern two-thirds, and the migratory tundra ecotype along Hudson Bay. The two of them mingle to some extent in the winter but the tundra caribou gather to calve along the coast, and the forest

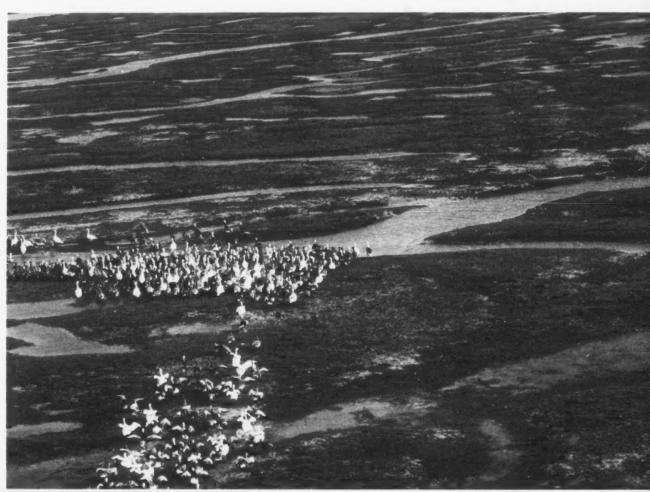


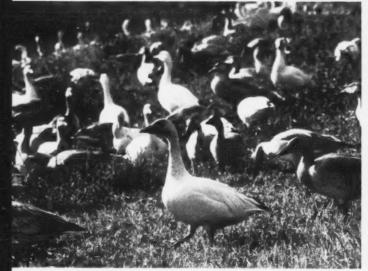


type disperses widely to calve in the interior (OMNR 2009). Current caribou numbers are not limited by the availability of its preferred lichen-rich habitats, such as lichen-dominated peat plateaus, beachridges and treed bogs, and old-growth woodlands (Ahti and Hepburn 1967).

TOP. Caribou, Pen Island foreshore, 1978.

BOTTOM. Polar bear lounging on coast, Cape Henrietta Maria area.









OPPOSITE TOP and BCTTOM LEFT. Snow Geese, Cape Henrietta Maria.

OPPOSITE BOTTOM RIGHT. Northern Shoveller, mouth of Shagamu River.

LEFT. Semipalmated Sandpipers, southwestern James Bay coast.

The Lowland is at the core of North America's primary boreal breeding nursery for landbirds, and Ontario shares a continental responsibility with its neighbouring boreal jurisdictions for these birds, whose numbers migrating south each fall have so far remained relatively constant (BSC 2003). For migratory waterfowl and shorebirds, the coasts of James and Hudson bays provide the only tidal saltwater habitats between the maritime arctic and the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico. Its coastal wetlands are also one of North America's primary breeding and nursery landscapes for waterfowl and shorebirds (Hanson and Smith 1950, Raveling and Lumsden 1977, Martini et al. 1980, Thomas and Prevett 1982, ESTR 2010). Large portions of the continental populations of Brant, Lesser Snow Goose and Canada Goose make use of these habitats, and the tidal marshes of Ontario are of hemispheric importance for at least fourteen species of shorebirds in both the early summer and fall, including the endangered Red Knot and subarctic specialists such as Hudsonian Godwit and Whimbrel. The funnelling effect of Hudson Bay and James Bay coastlines, which concentrate birds spectacularly during fall migration, is of global significance and remains one of North America's few examples of its former faunal abundance (Wilson and McRae 1993). The entire coast has been designated as Important Bird Areas, based on the high proportions of global and continental populations of birds.

Wildlife abundance can reflect distant circumstances. For example, the dramatic increases in the Snow Goose and Canada Goose are the result of over-feeding (due to the availability of grains) on their southern wintering grounds (Snow Geese), and of restored resident populations in eastern North America (Canada Goose). These increases have resulted in aggressive waterfowl grubbing in coastal wetlands, destroying their own preferred habitats, and these external forces offer no respite, and no time for rejuvenation (Abraham and Jeffries 1997, Kotanen and Jeffries 1997, Jeffries et al. 2006).

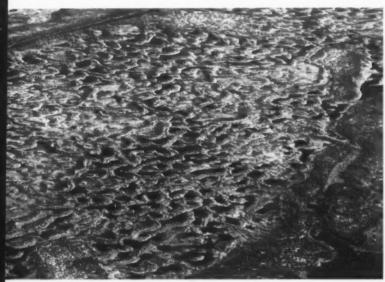
Invertebrates are "poorly studied" in the Lowland (Shorthouse et al. 2003), despite their critical role for avifauna and for ecological processes in general. A single study of saltmarsh insects at North Point, James Bay, found 318 species, at least eight of them new species (Kakonge et al. 1979). Mosquitoes and biting flies seem to dominate the invertebrate biomass; the former have been estimated at some 12,700,000 per hectare on parts of the Hudson Bay coast (West 1951). The wetland mollusk Macoma balthica, gastropod Hydrobia minuta, and both larval and adult flies are among the critical understudied food sources for shorebirds like the Hudsonian Godwit and Red Knot, as well as the spectacular flights of Semipalmated Sandpiper (Martini et al. 1980).



Regional Wetland Variability

Wetlands are areas of marsh, fen, peatland or water, whether natural or artificial, permanent or temporary, with water that is static or flowing, fresh, brackish or salt, including areas of shallow marine water (Ramsar Convention 1971).

An ancient tamarack fen now succeeded to open *Eriophorum* bog, southwest interior.





Wetland vegetation is by definition adapted to water and provides distinctive habitats for dependent biota. Wetlands can be either mineral, in close contact with underlaying substrates, or organic, with more than 30 to 40cm of accumulated organic material or peat. Peat is a word of ancient origin, in English use before 1200 and even earlier in Celt (pette) and Anglo-Latin (peta, petamore; OED 1971). A wide use of the term peatland has emerged in reference to terrain dominated by organic wetlands.

In the northern hemisphere, descriptive terms are both ancient and varied. The Algonquian term muskeg described open, untreed peatlands, and was later applied to peatlands in general, both open and treed. The Russian taiga broadly described the saturated terrains of sparse conifers and peatlands in the boreal north. Northern Eurasia has similar flat, marine-clay plains that also emerged from arctic seas as the result of postglacial uplift of the land, and Fennoscandians used terms like aapamoore to describe their northern boreal string bogs and patterned fens, palsamoore for subarctic permafrost peat mounds and plateaus, and arktische/moore for their maritime peatland tundra (Moore and Bellamy 1974). Moor is the German equivalent of the English mire (Norman myrr; Swedish myr) and is another term (like muskeg) whose generality of application has reduced its usefulness in describing specific wetland types (Jeglum et al. 1974).

Early Europeans also used a variety of terms to describe wetland types more particularly, and these were organized in the 1800s, and consolidated across Fennoscandia in 1913 by A.K. Cajander, who distinguished 35 types based largely on their botanical and physiognomic character. This has been the prevailing approach since, complemented by a variety of scale-based and user-based approaches, some of which have been applied to Canadian wetlands, with varying usefulness on landscapes like the Hudson Bay Lowland.

LANDSCAPE SCALES

Some of the early characterizations of the Lowland at the scale of landscapes were based on limited information about the region and limited field surveys. They include, from north to south:

- Tundra, forest tundra, open woodland (taiga), close forest (forest regions, Hustich 1949; Hare 1950, 1954);
- Forest tundra, muskeg woodland, main boreal forest (forest regions, Coombs 1952);
- Subarctic, hemiarctic, northern boreal, mid boreal (vegetation zones, Ahti 1964);
- Forest tundra, open woodland, closed forest (bioclimatic zones, Hare and Ritchie 1972).

A common assumption was that terms that had been developed to describe terrestrial ecosystems were appropriate to this unique wetland ecozone. This reflected the lingering impression, based on early river-based geological and timber surveys, that general terms like *muskeg* and *swamp* would suffice, without further specifics (*e.g.*, Bell 1887, Ontario 1900, Miller 1912). Similarly, the early literature on the development of Ontario peat for fuel offered no discrimination among wetland types (*peat bogs*: Ells 1882; Anrep 1914, 1921; Auer 1930).



Subsequent studies of trafficability, engineering, wildlife and ecology introduced new terms:

- trophic regimes; ombrogenous (rain-based), topogenous (catchment-based), soligenous (flow-based) (Sjörs 1950);
- waterfowl habitat; timbered muskeg, open muskeg, lake-land muskeg, pothole muskeg, smallpox muskeg (Hanson and Smith 1950):
- muskeg engineering; marbloid and reticuloid (northward) and, as well, stipploid and dermatoid (southward) muskeg types; Radforth 1969).

The advent of aerial photography finally documented the dominance of the region by wetlands, and invited new airphoto classifications. Brokx (1965) conducted the first pattern-based sub-regional mapping. Landscape units were mapped, even while acknowledging that dominance patterns varied, and that one any type could contain other types. Terms describing the dominant patterns included, from north to south: tundra, forest tundra, muskeg, lichen woodland, lichen muskeg, bog islands, spruce muskeg and fen, wet bog, tamarack fen, raised bog, bog, and transitional forest (Brokx 1965). Based on this sub-regional classification, Bates and Simkin (1969) interpreted airphotos to a mapscale of 1:633,600. They introduced additional terms to those of Brokx, including: palsa bog, palsa fen, palsa field (= plateau), polygon fen, lichen heath, sedge meadows and black spruce forest (=swamp). Together, these works established the range of terms that continue in use today to bridge both landscape and site-type scales in regional wetland studies.

LEFT. Inter-ridge permafrost (net) fen, northwest interior

MIDDLE. Open graminoid (net) fen, with treed permafrost fen ribs, central interior.

RIGHT. Open graminoid fen, with pools and treed bog islands, 10km inland from James. Bay south of Kapiskau River.

At landscape scales, a series of wetland types was also developed to reflect variation in terrain morphology (palsa, peat mound, plateau, thermokarst), pattern (net, ribbed/ string, ladder, collapse, polygon), landscape position (flat, horizontal, channel, slope), tidal position (coastal, estuarine), and proximity to water bodies (floodplain, stream, channel, basin, shore) (Tarnocai 1980, NWWG 1988). Keys

to these types in Ontario were developed by Riley and Michaud (1994; and see below, Wetland Succession, Vegetation Patterns, Pattern Types).

The site-type approach of Cajander and the later researchers who applied it, strongly influenced the wetland classification system proposed for Ontario in 1974 by John Jeglum, Art Boissonneau and Vic Haavisto, Toward a wetland classification for Ontario. In summary, they said, "Since the physiognomy and dominance patterns of vegetation express the resultant of all the transactions within a wetland ecosystem, we have used these vegetation patterns to define wetland types....We can [thus] add physiographic relationships...to the wetland types as descriptive adjuncts." By this means, wetland descriptors could be applied accurately at the field level and be aggregated up-scale in a hierarchical manner, and could thus be associated with other data collected at different scales.

This classification was tested for field use and for interpreting airphotos and satellite imagery in the 1970s in the Northern Clay Belt (ibid.), in the Groundhog River peatlands southwest of Timmins, and in the Kinoje Lake area northwest of Moosonee (Jeglum and Cowell 1982, Sims et al. 1982). On this basis, the Ontario Geological Survey applied the approach to its mapping of the surficial geology of the Hudson Bay Lowland from 1976 to 1979 (Pala and Boissonneau 1982, Pala and Weischet 1982, Riley 1982), and in the Ontario Peatland Inventory (1982-1986), which mapped and classified peatlands at scales ranging from 1:10,000 to 1:100,000 over study areas covering 207,000km2 of Ontario (Riley 1988, 1989, 1994a,b; Riley

and Michaud 1989, 1994). The hierarchical nesting of classification units was critical to using it at scales ranging from supervised classification of satellite imagery to detailed vegetation relevees, and for rolling-up and extrapolating site-specific environmental and chemical variables across broader landscape-scales.

Environment Canada used the same approach in its ecological land classification in the Lowland (Cowell et al. 1979). As well, the Province of Ontario's *Planning Act* requires the evaluation of wetlands in land-use planning (OMNR 2009), and the wetland evaluation systems for northern and southern Ontario apply this approach to classifying and mapping wetlands (OMNR 1993a,b).

Finally, wetland regions have been described for Canada (NWWG 1988) and the Hudson Bay Lowland (Riley 1982). These are paired below with their ecoregional equivalents (Ontario - Crins 2002, Crins *et al.* 2009; Canada - ESWG 1995); and described more fully below (see Ecoregional Wetland Characteristics):

- Ecoregion 0E (Hudson Bay Coast) (ESWG ecoregion 215) (humid high subarctic, SHh)
- Ecoregion 1E (Northern Taiga) (ESWG ecoregion 216) (low subarctic, SL)
- Ecoregion 2E (James Bay) (ESWG ecoregion 217) humid high boreal, BHh)
- Ecoregion 3E (Lake Abitibi) humid mid-boreal, BMh)

Open (stipploid) graminoid fen, southwest interior.



THE MAIN VARIATION AT FIELD SCALES

Hydrology

The major discrimination among wetlands in the Hudson Bay Lowland is between mineral and organic wetlands. Across the Lowland, these are also indicative of distinct hydrological systems. The hydrological system that supports mineral wetlands is dominated by marsh, meadow marsh and swamp, and is comprised of streams, ponds, rivers, lakes and coasts. Effectively, this is the immediate drainage system of the Lowland, and its waters are uniformly in contact with mineral substrates, which confer a richer nutrient status on such systems. This hydrological system grades, in some areas, into organic systems, such as along rising elevation gradients away from the coasts, where mineral-rich marsh grades slowly into fen and swamp as peat-depths increase.

The other hydrological system, which supports organic wetlands, consists of peats that, by comparison, seal their surface waters from substrate contact and thus limit nutrient availability. This peatland hydrological system has limited surface flow, most notably in the spring melt, and very slow water percolation laterally through peats that have different permeabilities, based on peat type. Effectively, this is the water storage system of the Lowland. It is dominated by bog, fen and swamp, and northward, by permafrost peatlands (palsa, peat plateau), all of which blanket the dominant clay plain of the region as well as its till-based uplands and its closed basins.

Patterns and Geomorphology

As noted above, the patterned wetlands of the Hudson Bay Lowland have astonished fieldworkers and have given rise to many descriptive terms that, while working for specific purposes, fail to meet the test of replicability of application (viz., Bates and Simkin 1969, Radforth 1969, etc.)

Hugo Sjörs undertook his seminal studies on Canadian wetlands in the Hudson Bay Lowland (1959, 1961, 1963). In 1959 he noted, "The strange patterns...are more difficult to interpret than the features themselves." The scale of the patterns makes them even more daunting; "The percentage of peatland in relation to total land area in the middle and northern parts of the Hudson Bay Lowland is so close to 100% that it could scarcely be higher anywhere in the world" (1963). He described the relationship of patterns to topography, flow and peatland succession: "Succession in peatland includes much more than the normal succession starting in a wet habitat that are described in ecological text books" (1961b). He used examples

WETLAND CLASSIFICATION

Canadian wetland classifications at different geographic scales and for divergent purposes have been reviewed by Jeglum et al. (1974), Sims et al. (1979), Zoltai et al. (1975, 1988). A consensus was developed by the National Wetlands Working Group (NWWG 1988) applying a hierarchy of three levels:

- 1. CLASS. Based on the overall genetic origin of the wetland ecosystem; BOG, FEN, MARSH, SWAMP, WATER, PALSA/PEAT PLATEAU
- 2. FORM. Based on location, pattern and geomorphology; e.g., Raised, String, Seepage, etc.
- 3. TYPE. Based on vegetation physiognomy; a finer-scale variability reflecting nutrient status and, less so, regional climate and substrate; e.g., Lowshrub, Graminoid, etc.

Wetland classifications that were extensions of this approach also employed a level 4, Dominance Type or dominant vegetation, based on averaged dominance of multiple relevees (Jeglum et al. 1974, Zoltai et al. 1975, Riley and McKay 1980). An additional quantitative level 5, or Site Type, based on specific site relevees, was also applied to reflect Hill's approach (1959, 1976), applied in phytosociological treatments developed to characterize wetland diversity by ecoregion (Maycock 1979).

The approach here employs levels 1, 3, 4 and 5, above, expanding on the classification for Ontario wetlands developed by Jeglum et al. 1974. The same approach is used to organize descriptive keys and summaries of wetland types (App. A,B), and the catalogue of regional wetland types (App.C). This conforms with past practice, but two other major classification approaches warrant cross-walking in support of consistency: the International Classification of Ecological Communities (ICEC; Grossman et al. 1998); and Canadian Vegetation Classification (CVC; NVWG 1990, Ponomarenko and Alvo 2001).



Open fen with treed ribs and bog islands, northcentral interior.

Wetland Classification		ICEC (1998)	CVC (2003)
FORMATION (= CLASS) Subformation	e.g. BOG e.g. OPEN	CLASS	1
Physiognomic Group (=TYPE)	e.g. LOWSHRUB	FORMATION	IV
Dominance Type	e.g. Chamaedaphne calyculata	ALLIANCE	v
Site Type	e.g. Sphagnum spp Chamaedaphne calyculata	ASSOCIATION	VII

This approach has been tested and applied at multiple scales, using different classification levels for different applications, and thus permitting regional roll-ups, extrapolation of results, nested map units, etc.;

FORMATION Multiple scales; from vegetation sampling to interpretation of remote sensing

Subformation Same multiple scales

Physiognomic Group Vegetation sampling, peat inventory, habitat descriptions, data rollup

Dominance Type Vegetation sampling, habitat descriptions

Site Type Field data collection, environmental variables, instrumentation, etc.

This approach to wetland classification also supported the 1981 identification of representative, candidate nature reserves in the Ontario Hudson Bay Lowland (Riley 1981).

such as black spruce islands in fens; the pools scattered in large bogs and fens; patterned *flarks* (Sw., terraced hollows or pools) separated by elevated ridges (of treed or untreed bog or fen); and treed palsas. He later noted other complicating patterns, like wooded fens and riparian fens (1963).

Overall, peatland patterns reflect underlaying topography and surficial and ground water flow. The lower and wetter elements tend towards minerotrophy (fen) and array themselves either parallel to or perpendicular to flow direction. The higher and drier elements tend towards more ombrotrophic conditions and are most often bog, and mark either raised surfaces or elevation breaks. The patterns of pools in bogs and fens, and their coalescence into larger waterbodies, are even less well understood, and they suggest successions that are antithetical to textbook examples of peat infilling depressions. Sjörs used the term "polyclimax" to describe the various directional and reversal successions that are coincidentally occurring within a particular wetland complex, generating distinctive patterns (1961). These processes also occur in permafrost wetlands, where succession by ice accretion and degradation can occur simultaneously in close proximity, in both raised palsa systems or in flat thermokarst lake systems. There are also similar patterns in shallow coastal peatlands, which are reflected in particular vegetation types there, with the same patterns in deeper interior peatlands, but with different vegetation.

No attempt is made here to classify wetland patterns in the Hudson Bay Lowland but, rather, to identify the constituent vegetation comprising those patterns, and outline the successional trends underlying particular patterns. Close instrumentation of the variability of vegetation and environmental conditions across particular patterns, over time, are absent from the Lowland, but parallel research in peatlands in northern Europe are relevant, for example, studies indicating particular patterns can persist over millennia (Moore and Bellamy 1974).

A working list of general wetland patterns (geomorphological types) of wetlands is included below (Wetland Succession, Vegetation Patterns, Pattern Types), but it is by no means inclusive. Such descriptive terms are used primarily in airphoto interpretation and in coarse-scale remote sensing but, in a region of unparalleled variability in wetland patterns, these non-hierarchical descriptors have, to date, proven to have limited field use or roll-up capability (e.g., the 96 classes mapped by Bates and Simkin 1969), as compared with vegetation classification.

Nutrient Status and Vegetation Variability

Sjörs noted that classification was a practical necessity but that "the classification of peatlands and their vegetation is, in any case, somewhat arbitrary" (1961a). He discussed previous approaches, noting that the term peatland had the least confusing connotations, and he defined the nutrient status and vegetation of Lowland peatlands for the first time: bog, fen, swamp and palsa/peat plateau. He emphasized the nutrient gradient from strict ombrotrophy (nutrients available more or less solely from precipitation and air-borne nutrients), to minerotrophy (nutrients available from underlaying or transported mineral substrates as well as from precipitation). He nominated nutrient classes relevant to the Hudson Bay Lowland, annotated here with their trophic and vegetation equivalents, based on surveys in the Hawley Lake area (1961a) and the Muketei River area (1963):

- Oligotrophic: pH equal to or less than 5.2; ombrotrophic to weakly minerotrophic; e.g., bog, peat plateau/palsa, and poor fen;
- Mesotrophic: pH 5.2 to 7.0+; minerotrophic;
 e.g., moderately rich fen, conifer swamp;
- Eutrophic: pH more than 7.0; strongly minerotrophic; e.g., extremely rich fen, marsh, swamp.

Sjörs tested these classes at descriptive scales, and documented the changes in vegetation composition that paralleled the changes in nutrient availability.

This combination of vegetation and nutrient status has formed the basis of subsequent wetland classifications, with the emphasis shifting over time from trophic terms to their vegetational equivalents, and to terms incorporating both physiognomy and composition, such as those developed by Cajander (1913, 1926), Sjörs (1961a, 1963) and Jeglum, Boissonneau and Haavisto (1974).

More detailed analysis has shown these to reflect primary environmental gradients: 1) moisture-aeration regime; and 2) nutrient-pH regime (Jeglum 1973, 1974). Moisture-aeration is measured as depth of water or depth-to-water, a surrogate for the level of saturation of the rooting zone, the availability of oxygen to roots, and the resultant suitability of sites to variously hydrophytic species. Nutrient-pH regime, in this case the measurement of surface-water pH, is an indicator of the varying amounts of nutrient that are available to the vegetation. A more general term for low pH, or acidity, would be "base neutralizing capacity," or the ability of acidic natural waters to neutralize nutrient cations and make them unavailable to vegetation (Shotyk 1988).

Major Formations

PEAT PLATEAU AND PALSA

Fennoscandian origins (Sami balsa, Swedish palse, Finnish palsa); Russian equivalent (bugor). Use in Canada advanced by Radforth (1955) and Sjörs (1959, 1961b) etc.

Continuous permafrost dominates within 60 to 100km of the Hudson Bay coast, where palsas and peat plateaus dominate. Permafrost becomes discontinuous southward (both areally and stratigraphically), and effectively disappears south of a line from the south end of James Bay westnorthwest to the Manitoba border at about 92°W. In the zone of discontinuous permafrost, more southern elements like treed bog islands, peat mounds and pools transition into discrete palsas elevated by ice expansion, and this elevation further dries and acidifies these elements. North again, palsas occur with increased frequency, and coalesce into raised permafrost peat plateaus whose characteristic physiognomy is of 1) a raised frozen hummock phase (palsas), with 2) interstitial hollows between the hummocks (Railton and Sparling 1973, Brown and Kupsch 1974). These extensive permafrost peatlands are similar to bog in their vegetation, except for the predictable dominance of the raised phases by lichens, particularly Cladina. They are sporadically patterned with ice-wedge polygons in the area inland from Cape Henrietta Maria and the Brant River. Between the Winisk and Shagamu Rivers, and elsewhere, the continuous peat plateaus support thermokarst lake systems. The frozen peat under these peat plateaus is 3 to 4m thick (>3.6 ± 0.8, n=3), with ice continuous into the underlaying substrates. Active layers average 25-45cm deep and their raised, dry conditions make them the most firesusceptible of wetland types.

Over large areas southwest of Cape Henrietta Maria and south of the Pen Islands, there occur frozen peat plateaus that are also raised but without hummock-hollow phasing and with shallow, wet active layers 10 to 20cm. These are dominated by moss and graminoid species typical of open bogs or fens, and these tundra wetland types are included in the catalogue (App. B) as open permafrost bogs and fens. *Tundra* is a term of Lapland origin, first used in English in 1841 in reference to northern Siberia (OED 1971); tundra wetland types are not treated as a distinct formation here but warrant closer study of their variability in the Lowland.





TOP. Permafrost peat plateau, with thermokarst lake, inland from Little Cape, Hudson Bay.

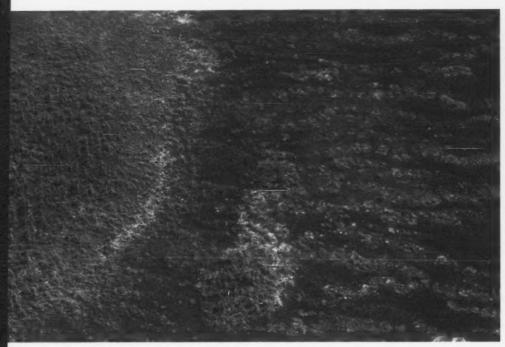
BOTTOM. Shallow pond in open tundra fen, 6km inland from western Hudson Bay coast.

Subformations

OPEN	Less than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
TREED	More than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
	(10 400) 1 10 10 10

Physiognomic groups

LOWSHRUB	Shrubs 20-135cm tall dominant, >10% cover
DWARF SHRUB	Shrubs <20cm tall dominant, >10% cover
LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB	Lichen dominant, >45-50%; low shrubs >109





BOG

From the Gaelic and Irish, first recorded in English use in 1505 (OED 1971).

Bogs are peat-covered plains or peat-filled depressions with a high water tables and a surface carpet of mosses dominated by Sphagnum. The moss often forms raised hummocks intersected by low hollows, and the water table, at least in the hollow phase, is at or near surface in the spring, though below surface for the drier times of the year. In flat or level bogs, the water may remain at the surface throughout the summer. In either case, the surface waters and peat waters are isolated from mineral soil waters, strongly acid, and deficient in mineral nutrients. The peat is deposited in situ under restricted or contained drainage, and is dominated surficially by fibrous, acidic Sphagnum peat. Bogs are predictably dominated by Sphagnum, with black spruce, ericaceous shrubs and a few adapted sedge species present. Bogs differ from fens in the reduced availability of nutrients to the surface vegetation, and in their extremely low species diversity. (After Zoltai et al. 1974, Jeglum et al. 1974, Riley and Michaud 1994, NWWG 1988.)

Bogs can also be effectively dry wetlands, and average depths-to-water can predictably exceed those of other wetland types (Fig. 18). Bogs throughout the Lowland are variously free of permafrost or with either continuous or discontinuous permafrost; peat depths in ecoregions 0E and 1E average >1.8m (\pm 0.6, n=33), and in ecoregion 2E average >2.6m (\pm 0.8, n=124).

Coh	for	-	s.	on	

OPEN	Less than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
TREED	More than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
	(10-40%; trees >10cm DBH <10%)

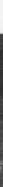
Physiognomic groups

POOL

Snrubs >135cm tall dominant,
10-30 (40)% cover.
Shrubs 20-135cm tall dominant, >10% cover
Shrubs <20cm tall dominant, >10% cover
Lichen dominant, >45-50%; low shrubs >10%
Graminoids dominant; >10% cover
Sphagnum dominant; shrubs,
graminoids <10% cover

Small waterbodies within bog

TOP LEFT. Bog on left, flanked by fen drainway on right transitional to open bog, southwest interior.





FEN

From Old English, German and other languages, and first recorded in English use in Beowulf, which was written between 650 and 750 (OED 1971). The term was early associated with peat wetlands interspersed with pools and drainways.

Fens are peat-covered sloping plains or channels with very high water tables and with surface carpets of brown mosses and associated Sphagnum. The mosses usually form uniform, flowing patterns with minor hummocks and hollows reflecting flow patterns in their changing physiognomy. Fens have very high water tables, usually with evidence of lateral surface flow or seepage, and with average depths-towater less than 20cm even at the driest times of year. They are predictably dominated by richer floristic assemblages of sedges, low shrubs, grasses, reeds, tamarack, cedar and orchids. Fens can range from weakly acidic to strongly minerotrophic, especially the latter in sites experiencing groundwater discharge from adjacent uplands and thus supporting strong marl development. Fen peats are dominated by weaker mosses and dominant graminoids and shrubs, thus taking on a laminated structure (where there is >50% sedge peat), which permits both internal expansion or contraction to stabilize effective water levels, and internal lateral flow of water. (After Zoltai et al 1974, Riley and Michaud 1994, NWWG 1988.)

Fens are wetter than bogs (Fig. 18), and are more variable in water nutrients, peat types, and species composition. Fens in ecoregions 0E and 1E are variously free of permafrost or with either continuous or discontinuous permafrost. Permafrost is rare in fens in ecoregion 2E. Peat depths in ecoregions 0E and 1E average >1.4m (± 0.7, n=31), and >2.2m (± 1.1, n=76) in ecoregion 2E.

Subformations

OPEN	Less than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
TREED	More than 10% cover by trees >135cm tall
	(10-40%: trees >10cm DBH <10%)

Physiognomic groups

SHRUB-RICH	Shrubs >135cm tall dominant,
	10-30 (40)% cover.
LOWSHRUB	Shrubs 20-135cm tall dominant, >10% cover
DWARF-SHRUB	Shrubs <20cm tall dominant, >10% cover
GRAMINOID	Graminoids dominant; >10% cover
SPHAGNUM	Sphagnum dominant; shrubs, graminoids < 10% cover
POOL	Small waterbodies within fen, usually patterned

MIDDLE. Patterned fen, of pools terraced with treed ribs, southwest interior. RIGHT. Low-density tamarack fen, with treed spruce bog islands.







SWAMP

Likely of local Germanic and English origins, first recorded in relation to richsoil North American (Virginian) wetlands by John Smith in 1624, as "cypress, river or cane swamps" (OED 1971).

Swamps are minerotrophic, nutrient-rich wetlands that are heavily wooded or with dense shrub thickets over 2m tall. Swamps often have hummocky surfaces broken by wet interstitial hollows (conifer swamp) or spring-flooded pools (broadleaf or thicket swamp). Along rivers, substrates can be of transported mineral or organic materials, but such riparian (broadleaf, thicket) sites are relatively infrequent in the Hudson Bay Lowland in comparison with organic (conifer) swamps. There is pronounced internal water movement through swamps, and broadleaf and thicket swamps can dry out completely in summer. The surface waters of the more predominant conifer swamps can be weakly acidic, less than pH 6.0, or they can be more alkaline in groundwater seeps and marl beds, and in sites dominated by tamarack, cedar and broadleaf trees and shrubs. With increasing acidity and wetness, conifer swamp grades into treed fens and bogs. Surficial peats underlaying conifer swamps are usually dominated by wood (>50%), and both

> TOP. Thicket swamp foreground, conifer swamp background, Akimiski island. RIGHT. Lichen-rich tamarack swamp,

> > Moose River basin.

living and peat mosses are more minor elements. Thicket swamps can also be transitional, occupying site gradients between open wetlands and drier or upland sites; or they can be successional, indicating regenerating former swamp sites or areas with altered water levels, such as beaver ponds. (After Zoltai et al 1974, Jeglum et al. 1974, Riley and Michaud 1994, NWWG 1998).

Physiognomic groups

CONIFER Conifer trees dominant, >25% cover

BROADLEAF Broadleaf deciduous trees dominant, >25% cover

THICKET Trees <25% cover, shrubs >135cm tall >25%







MARSH and MEADOW MARSH

From Old English, Dutch and German; first recorded in English use in 705 (OED 1971).

Marshes are mineral wetlands or peatlands that are periodically or continuously inundated by standing or slowly moving waters, and associated with the open waters of streams, rivers, lakes and maritime shores. Surface waters fluctuate at least seasonally, such as in spring flood or ice-scouring of river meadow marshes after breakup, or as much as twice daily by tides. Water drawdown (again either seasonally or tidally) normally exposes matted organic or mineral substrates. Peats can be mixtures of marl, moss, sedge and wood peats. Such mixed peat substrates can have well more than 25% ash (mineral) content. Marsh is normally dominated (>25%) by emergent sedges, grasses, cattails or reeds, or low shrubs or ferns, interspersed in shallow waters or wet substrates. Denser, drier, semi-terrestrial types are termed meadow marsh. Surface-water calcium and magnesium levels are notably higher than in other wetland types. (Adapted from Zoltai et al 1974, Jeglum et al. 1974, Riley and Michaud 1994, NWWG 1988.)

Subformations

COASTAL Within marine (salt) influence of Hudson and James bays

ESTUARINE Subject to tidal reach, influenced by freshwater of

major rivers

FRESHWATER Beyond marine influences, mainly interior

Physiognomic groups

COASTAL and ESTUARINE

INTERTIDAL Subject to regular tidal water and ice influences

SUPRATIDAL Above regular tides, subject to rare high tides

FRESHWATER

SHALLOW Emergent cover 75-100%, water <1 m deep

DEEP Emergent cover 25-75%, water can be >1-2m deep

SHRUB-RICH Shrubs >135cm tall dominant, 10-30 (40)% cover

LOWSHRUB Shrubs <135cm tall dominant, >10% cover

ABOVE CENTER Intertidal coastal marsh, southwestern James Bay.

ABOVE RIGHT. Supratidal meadow marsh, mouth of Moose River.





WATER

Usage following that of National Wetland Working Group (NWWG 1988).

Deep and shallow waters up to 2m or more, are usually associated with flowing or standing waters in lakes, rivers, ponds or depressions between beachridges, for example. They are vegetated with sparse or dense floating, submergent or partially emergent vegetation, but usually have at least 75% surface water showing. In still-water situations, organic materials can be deposited that are non-fibrous and even colloidal (muck) in structure; these kinds of peats are often found underlaying mature fens or bogs, indicative of their open-water origins. Deep and shallow water pools differ from bog and fen pools in their diversity, their connection to mineral substrates and their minerotrophic status.

Physiognomic groups

SHALLOW Standing water up to 2m deep, emergent

or submergent vegetation

DEEP Standing water >2m deep,

primarily submergent vegetation

TOP. Deep water, shallow water and marsh at Pledger Lake, southern interior.

BOTTOM. Inter-ridge ponds, Shagamu rivermouth area.



Sampling Methods

Fen complex, with incipient palsa formation (ribs and mounds), in northcentral interior.





LEFT. Author and RIGHT, Art Boissonneau.

Vegetation Sampling

The reported surveys of the Lowland's organic peatlands were predominantly of selected homogeneous site types (with exceptions noted), while the reported surveys of mineral wetlands, along its coasts and streams, rivers, lakes and ponds, were predominantly transect-based. Both approaches have in common that they applied equivalent percentage-based, cover-value measurements at fixed sample points.

MINERAL WETLANDS

A. Coastal southwest James Bay (1972 to 1976; Riley and Moore 1973; McKay and Arthur 1975; also Ringius 1980). Surveys in 1972 and 1974 documented 22 vegetation transects (14km in total) oriented from low-water to high-water, recording cover, frequency and stratification (160 1m x 10cm plots in 1972 on 5 transects at Shipsands Island; 850 1m x 1.5cm and 0.5m x 0.5m plots along 17 transects at Shipsands and Puskwuche Point). In 1976 reconnaissances of intertidal and supratidal systems were conducted at Arnold Point, North Point, Longridge Point and Puskwuche Point. For these surveys, the identified dominance types refer to homogeneous communities covering hundreds of hectares, either in continuous or in mosaic-like patterns. Species-area curves were calculated in some cases as an index of homogeneity. These dominance types are summarized by Riley and McKay (1980), and catalogued here (App C). Beyond these major types is a wide range of heterogeneous, minor associations.

These plot data were augmented by subsequent reconnaissances northward:

- **B. James and Hudson Bay coasts** (August 1976), transects at Fog Point, Lake River, Little Cape, coast west of Winisk, etc.;
- C. Attawapiskat River (1977, Cowell and Riley 1978), quadrat sampling of riparian wetlands;
- **D. Lower Shagamu River** (1977), ridge-pond-ridge transects, quadrat series;
- **E. Coastal surveys within 20km of the coast** (1990, Wilson 1990), quadrats.

ORGANIC WETLANDS

Peatlands were surveyed by the author on a variety of quantitative and reconnaissance studies in the Lowland. The summary data on most frequent site types is included in the site catalogue (App. C).

A. Regional quantitative peatland sampling (2-28 July 1978 and 22 July-14 August 1979). This major helicopter reconnaissance of the Hudson Bay Lowland by the former Ontario Centre for Remote Sensing mapped the surficial geology of the Lowland for the Ontario Geological Survey. Because the region's surficial geology is predominantly organic, wetland data were collected to characterize large sites of homogeneous types, to identify signature reflectance values for supervised classification of LANDSAT imagery.

About 1600 sites were pre-selected from airphotos and LANDSAT imagery, and about one quarter of these were visited in the course of about 32,000km of flying at altitudes <500m. Two hundred and one sites were sampled (Fig. 5), many for more than one dominance type. A total of 309 of these vegetation samples had complete data sets that were subject to quantitative ordination (below). Sampling sites were the result of a combination of random and subjective site selection (see Riley and Michaud 1994), which was the general approach taken for all the quadrat surveys cited here.

At a site, the vegetation of the dominant homogenous type was sampled. The dominance types were characterized in the field, with only minor reconsideration later (App. C):

Formation	No. samples	% samples
PEAT PLATEAU/PALSA	4	<196
BOG	166	54%
FEN	127	41%
SWAMP	2	<1%
MARSH	10	3%
Subformation		
OPEN	255	82.5%
TREED	54	17.5%
Physiognomic Type		
Shrub-rich	10	3.2%
Lowshrub	102	33%
Graminoid	167	54%
Sphagnum, Pool, WATER	30	9.7%

For comparison, the current estimates of the areal extent of peatlands in the Ontario Lowland are: peat plateau/palsa 22%, bog 36%, fen 24%, swamp 13%, marsh 4% and water 7% (Riley 1982, 1988). The proportion of sampled sites differs from this, and focuses on the most abundant, diverse and inaccessible systems, specifically the patterned and non-treed (open) bog and fen systems. Field surveys also avoided oversampling more predictable dominance types, such as treed lowshrub bog, treed lowshrub fen, conifer swamp and peat (bog) plateau.

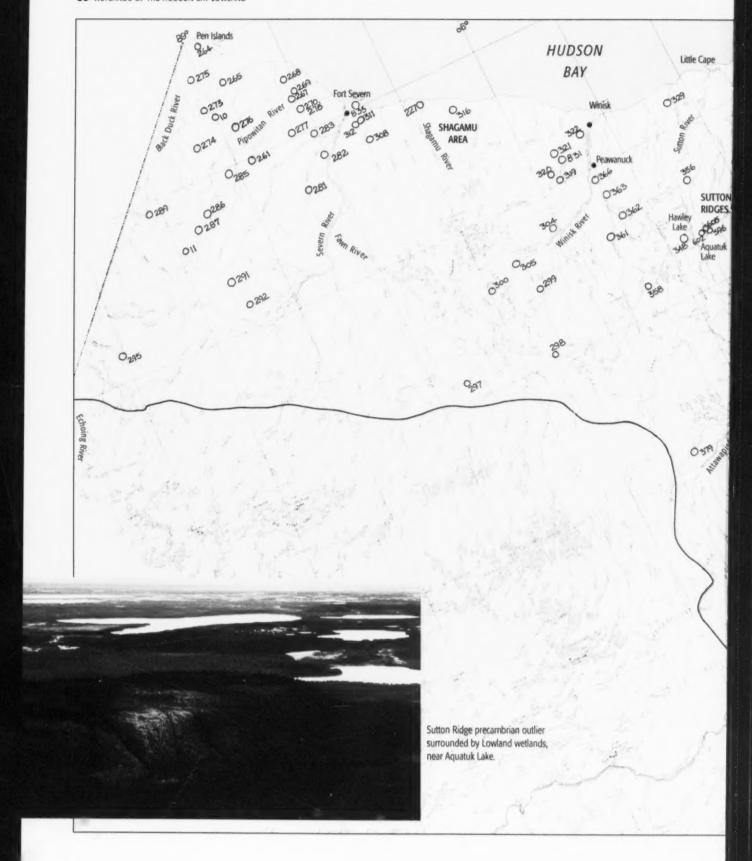
At sample sites, 1m x 1m quadrats were thrown in areas of dominant homogeneous vegetation. In patterned systems (more than one type), data were collected for individual

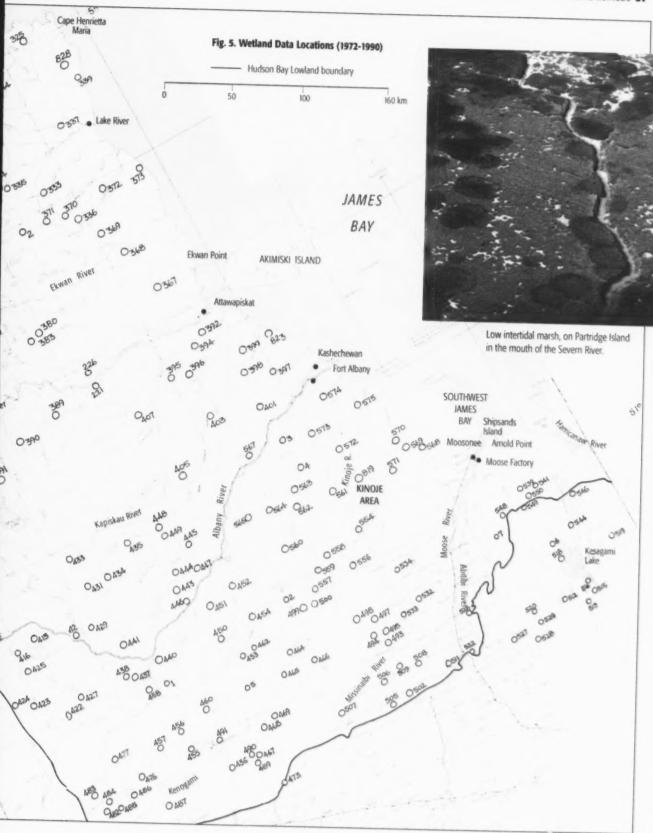
types, such as those arrayed as hollow, hummock or pool phases. Cover values were recorded for all vascular plant species (2 to 100%, and P=present for species less than 2%), and for moss and lichen species over 5% cover. In this rapid reconnaissance, only 1 or 2 quadrats were completed at most sites, although up to 10 quadrats were completed at others. Quadrat cover values were adjusted by assessing species presence and cover values over a 10m x 10m area of the same dominance type, as an expedient double-check on the cover values of dominant species. It also permitted a fuller record of the presence of all vascular plant species in the broader sample area, which would otherwise have required many quadrats to obtain comparable species-presence data, valuable because of species with high habitat fidelity at low cover values, in habitats such as fens. Balancing the sampling shortcomings of this reconnaissance method was a strict consistency of approach maintained at all sites, by a single individual, assuring comparability of results.

Also recorded at each site were average height, diameter-breast-height (DBH, and cover values of tree species attaining tree habit (>10cm DBH), and average height and cover values for each shrub species (woody species >15 cm tall). With the latter, particular note was made of the cover of shrub species (and trees suppressed at shrub size) that were less than 135cm tall (BH).

These plot data were augmented by numerous quadrat, transect and reconnaissance studies by the author employing the same data-collection approach:

- **B. Onakawana** (1972, Stanfield *et al.* 1972), quadrats, transects and mapping;
- **C. Kinoje Lake** (Kinosheo Lake) transects and plots (1976, Riley and McKay 1980); and quadrats, transects, mapping (1990);
- **D. Attawapiskat River karst** (1977, Cowell and Riley 1978), quadrat, transects;
- E. Lower Shagamu River (1977), quadrats, transects;
- F. Hawley and Aquatuk Lakes (1980, McAndrews et al. 1982), quadrats;
- **G. Coastal surveys within 20km of the coast** (1990, Wilson 1990), quadrats; and
- H. North Point and sample sites inland (August 1990), quadrats, transects, mapping (same sites sampled by North Wetlands Study, Klinger and Short 1996).





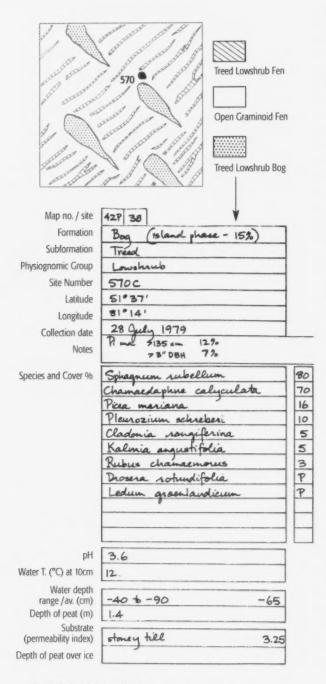


Fig. 6. Wetland data collection

Environmental Parameters

The two environmental regimes most powerful in discriminating among northern wetland types have surrogate measurements that can be sampled in the field; moisture-aeration and nutrient-pH regimes (Jeglum 1973). These were the environmental measures found to strongly discriminate among wetland types (Jeglum 1974 a,b), and which were consistently recorded in the field surveys reported here: water pH (surrogate for nutrient-pH regime) and depth-to-water (range and mean values, -ve and +ve; a surrogate for moisture-aeration regime). Also recorded in these surveys were: water temperature, depth of peat, substrate (coded to reflect permeability or average clast size; Fig. 6, 7), and the presence of continuous (impenetrable with peat rods) or discontinuous (penetrable) permafrost (and ice lenses).

Site pH was measured in the field, to the nearest 0.1 units, using E. Merck ColorpHast® 3-part pH Indicator Sticks in the ranges 0-6.0 and 5.0-10.0. Periodic checks on these pH measurements were made with portable pH meters at Moosonee, Attawapiskat and Winisk, which suggested an accuracy of approximately ±0.2 units. The pH was measured in water taken in small sample bottles 10cm below groundwater level. Where peats were not saturated, water was taken as close to the water table level as possible by cutting out a sampling pit, and squeezing out a water sample from recovered peat as close to water level as possible. Temperature was recorded for the same samples.

Depth-to-water was recorded as a positive or negative value, both as a range value and a mean value (subjectively) at each sample site.

Peat depth was recorded using extendable peat rods, and peat stratigraphy was observed using a customized stainless-steel Macaulay auger (5cm diameter by 50cm long). Recovered peats were sampled in the hand as constituent intervals based on changes in peat type and peat decomposition (botanical constituents and von Post degrees of humification; Henderson and Doiron 1982, Riley and Michaud 1994). Changes in botanical composition illustrate wetland succession over time, and field observations were made of gross peat and non-peat types: moss peat (dominated by *Sphagnum* peat or brown-moss peat); sedge peat (*Carex*, graminoids, forbs); woody peat (dominated by tree wood or shrub wood); marl; and, rarely, basal ooze (*gyttja* or *dy*).

Fig. 7. Coding of substrate permeability (by observed average basal clast size)

(Based	on	clast-size	distribution)
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- 6.0 (cobble-boulder, >200mm),
- 4.0-5.0 (gravels; 2.0-200mm),
- 3.0-4.0 (coarse sand, 0.2-2.0mm),
- 2.0-3.0 (fine sand 0.02-0.2mm),
- 1.0-2.0 (silt, 0.002-0.02mm),

2.5

Acidity - pH

3

3.5

- 0-1.0 clay (0-0.002mm)
- 5.25 coarse gravel-boulder
- 5.0 gravel
- 4.65 sandy gravel
- 4.35 medium sand and gravel
- 4.0 pebbly sand, coarse sand
- 3.75 sand, beach sand
- 3.5 rocky till

- 3.25 pebbly till, stoney till
- 3.0 coarse till, medium sand
- 2.75 sandy till
- 2.5 fine sand
- 2.25 very fine sand, silty sand
- 2.0 sandy silt, gritty sand, alluvial silt
- 1.7 silty till, silt
- **1.5** till, clay till, washed till, stoney clay
- 1.25 gritty clay, lacustrine clay, clay silt, silty clay
- 1.0 clay, marine clay, clay (marine), laminated silt

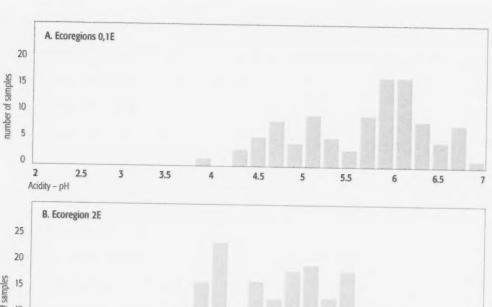
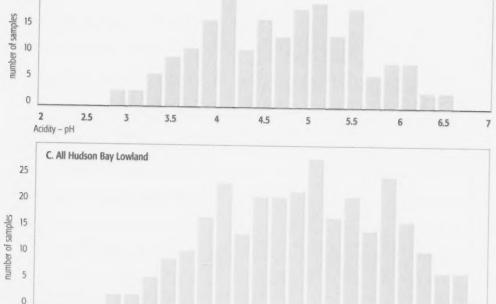


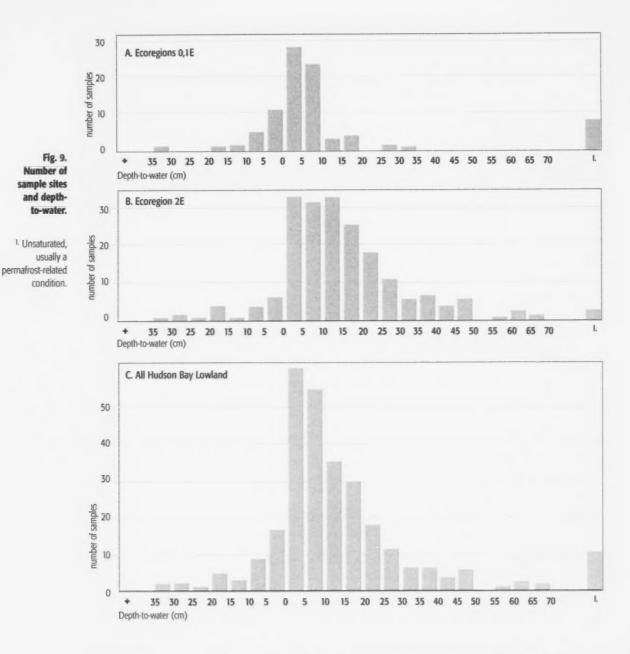
Fig. 8. Number of sample sites and surface-water pH.



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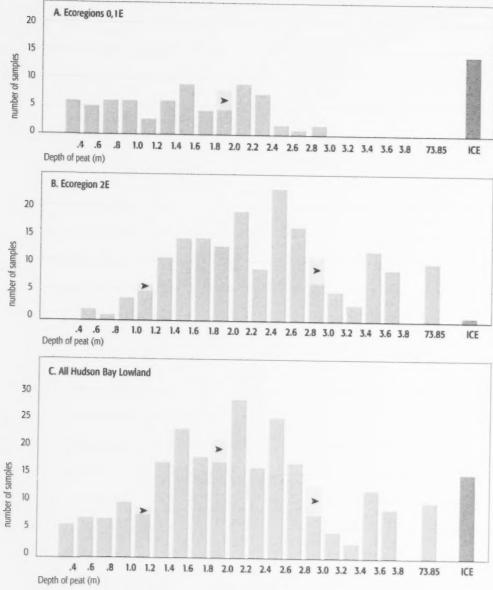
5.5

6



Basal materials were extracted by auger, and substrates were characterized in the field by the author or by A. Boissonneau (Ontario Centre for Remote Sensing), assisted in some cases by A. J. Cooper or E.V. Sado (Ontario Geological Survey). Observations of substrate type were coded on the basis of average

substrate clast-size/permeability (Fig. 7). (Based on the postglacial history of gradual emergence of the Lowland from the sea, two other variables were recorded for statistical analysis: 1) elevation of site above sea level; and 2) distance of the site from nearest coast.)



Balancing the lack of intensive, instrumented site sampling in this survey was its consistency of application and its breadth of geographic coverage

application and its breadth of geographic coverage among all major dominance types. Measures of the representation achieved by these methods are indicated in Figs 8-10, which graph the number of site samples per subunit of surface-water pH, depth-to-

water, and depth of peat. The graphs present the totals, and the data divided by regional occurrence (ecoregions 0E, 1E and 2E). (Note the clear skew in data towards shallower peats and higher pH values in ecoregions 0E and 1E, reflecting the immense latitudinal shift in survey geography.)

Fig. 10. Number of sample sites and peat depth.

Note: Arrows indicate sample depths greater than values plotted, based on unreached depths.



Environmental Variability

Permafrost peatland complex of bog ribs and fen flats and pools, Shagamu River interior.

Summary data from all sampled wetlands are included in the catalogue of wetland site types (App. C), and in the summary of dominance types, distribution and permafrost (App. B). All of these catalogued types are referenced in the following general descriptions of the variability of Lowland wetlands, both mineral and organic. The following section, however, focuses on the quantitative vegetation ordination that was completed for a subset of 309 sampled site types in the Lowland.

This subset of sampled wetlands offers the possibility of a broad statistical and geographic overview of Ontario's subarctic wetlands. It does not offer detailed analyses of wetland succession at particular sites, but illustrates the general relationships of major wetland types. The vegetation data (species and cover values) for 309 sites were ordinated by detrended correspondence analysis according to the Cornell Ecology Program DECORANA (Hills 1979). Ordinations were plotted for 309 sample sites overall, and for subsets from ecoregion 2E (n=209) and ecoregions 0E and 1E, excluding marshes (n=91) (Fig. 11-13). Statistical correlations between strongest ordination axes and environmental parameters were calculated (Tables 2-4).

The ordinations distinctly segregate the two major wetland series; minerotrophic wetlands (marsh, fen), and ombrotrophic wetlands (bog, peat plateau). Within these two series, the ordinations segregate physiognomic and subformations less distinctly, but with clear and consistent shifts from wet to dry site types. The wetland types used in this report's keys and catalogues are superimposed on the following figures, to illustrate this general variability.

All Sites (Fig. 11, axes 1, 3): Segregates nutrient-poor types (bog, peat plateau/palsa, black spruce conifer swamp) from more nutrient-rich types (marsh, fen, tamarack conifer swamp), with some overlap of open graminoid bogs and fens. Within each of the two major nutrient-regime types, there is a secondary gradation from wetter to drier wetland types.

Ecoregion 2E (Fig. 12; sites south of ca. 53°N); axes 1, 2); Illustrates same segregation of nutrient-poor and nutrientrich types, at around pH 5.0 (as illustrated).

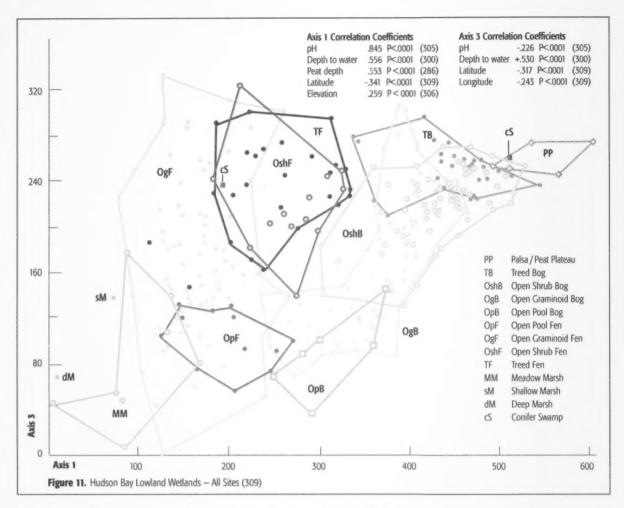
Ecoregions 2E, 0E and 1E (Fig. 13, sites north of ca. 53°N; axes 1, 1): Illustrates same segregation into two nutrient groupings, strongly segregated around pH 5.2.

NUTRIENT REGIME AND MOISTURE-AERATION REGIME

Nutrient regime and moisture-aeration regime are the variables most strongly correlating with vegetational variability. For example, for all Lowland sites (Fig. 10, Table 2), axis 1 correlates most strongly with surface-water acidity (r=0.845, p<.0001, n=305). This is the case as well for sites in ecoregion 2E (Fig. 12, Table 3), and ecoregions 0E and 1E (Fig. 13, Table 4). Again, for all Lowland sites (Fig. 11), axis 3 correlates most strongly with average depth-to-water (r=0.530, p<.0001, n=309). This is also the case for sites sampled in ecoregion 2E (axis 2; Fig. 12, Table 3).

	Surface water pH	Depth-to- water	Peat depth	Water temperature	Substrate type	Presence of ice	Elevation	Distance- to-coast	Latitude	Longitude
Axis 1	845(305)***	.556(300)***	.353(286)***	182(298)**	178(253)**		.259(306)***	.257(308)***	341(309)***	206(309)**
Axis 2		.331(300)***	248(286)***	491(298)***		.444(307)***	208(306)**	259(308)***	.374(309)***	.220(309)***
Axis 3	226(305)***	.530(300)***	-	229(298)***			.165(306)**	.190(308)**	317(309)***	-242(309)**
Depth-to-water	533(296)***									
Peat depth	474(283)***	-								
Vater temperature	-	227(291)***	.316(278)***							
Substrate type	.222(252)**	-	246(253)***							
Presence of ice	.145(303)*	-		284(298)***						
Elevation	339(302)***	.127(297)*	.437(283)***	.282(297)***		305(304)***				
Distance-to-coast	334(304)***	-	.434(285)***	.340(297)***	-262(252)***	379(306)***	.635(305)***			
Latitude	.513(305)***	369(300)***	486(286)***	313(298)***	.214(253)***	.575(307)***	454(306***	579(308)***		
Longitude	.324(305)***	346(300)***	133(286)*	4		.394(307)***		.123(308)*		

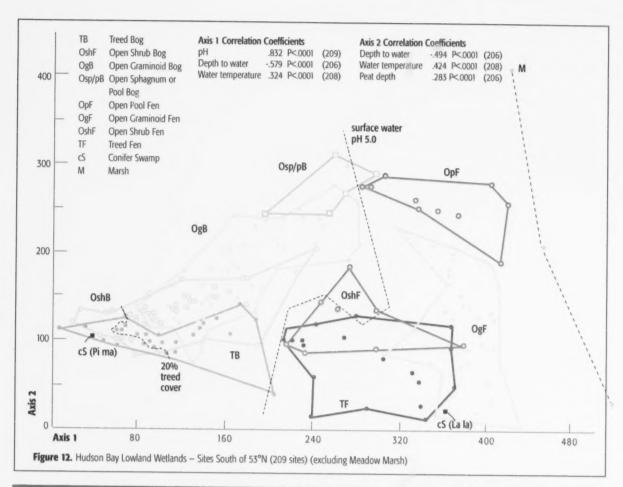
(followed by n=number of sites; * = P < 0.05, ** = P < 0.005, *** = P < 0.0001).



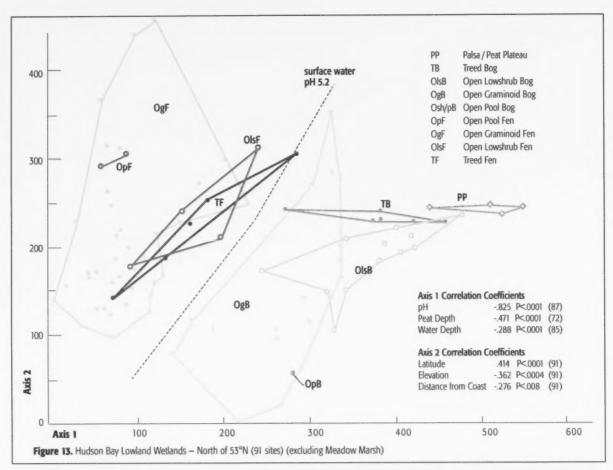
These ordinations illustrate general geographic trends. For example, there is a general rise in site pHs northward (Fig. 14), with less acid bogs and fens northward (in shallower peat). Figure 15 shows this general shift of nutrient status towards more alkaline sites in ecoregions 0E and 1E (Riley 1982). North of 53°N there were no peatlands sampled with surface-water pH less than 4.0. There is also a regional shift northward towards raised permafrost peat plateaus, and these represent the extremes of site acidity in ecoregions 0E and 1E (Fig. 13). In ecoregion 2E, extremely rich marl fens and shallow coastal fens often have pHs exceeding 6.5 but these are rare types not included in the analyzed sample set. On the other hand, water pHs in peatlands of ecoregions OE and 1E regularly exceed 6.5. In general, bogs (pH less than 5.1) are the dominant peatland types in ecoregion 2E, while fens (pH >4.9) and bog-like PEAT PLATEAUS dominate ecoregions 0E and 1E.

PEAT DEPTH

Peat depth varies most directly with surface-water pH, as is clear in the ordinations. Bogs are more acid and have deeper peats, averaging >2.55m deep in the south (ecoregion 2E; ±0.79, n=124) and >1.82m deep in the north (ecoregions 0E,1E; ±0.56, n=33). On the other hand, fens are less acid and have shallower peats over mineral substrates, averaging 2.15m deep in the south (ecoregion 2E; ±1.11, n=76) and 1.37m deep in the north (ecoregions 0E,1E; ±0.73, n=31). For all sample sites, peat depth increases with decreasing pH (r=-.474, p<.0001, n=283). The same holds for both southern and northern subsamples, and peat depth also increases with elevation (longer periods of peat accumulation) and decreases with latitude (slower rates of peat accumulation).



	Surface water pH	Depth-to- water	Peat depth	Water temperature	Substrate type	Presence of ice	Elevation	Distance- to-coast	Latitude	Longitude
Axis 1	.832(209)***	579(206)***	194(206)*	.324(208)***	.176(188)*	180(209)*	197(209)**	163(209)*	.246(209)**	
Axis 2		494(206)***	.283(206)***	.424(208)***			-			
Axis 3		•	-		•			.138(209)*		.244(209)**
Depth-to-water	497(206)***									, ,
Peat depth	351(206)***									
ater temperature	.202(208)**	384(205)***	.262(205)***							
Substrate type										
Presence of ice	155(209)*	.158(206)*		177(208)*						
Elevation	255(209)**	•	.371(206)***	.179(208)*		186(209)*				
Distance-to-coast	154(209)*	*	.307(206)***	.205(208)**	268(188)**	201(209)**	.548(209)***			
Latitude	.304(209)***	202(206)**	502(206)***	309(208)***		.146(209)*	461(209)***	420(209)***		
Longitude		251(206)***			212(188)**		.212(209)**	.765(209)***		



	Surface water pH	Depth-to- water	Peat depth	Water temperature	Substrate type	Presence of ice	Elevation	Distance- to-coast	Latitude	Longitude
Axis 1	825(87)***	.288(85)*	.471(83)***	-263(83)*		.258(89)*	*	-	+	
Axis 2	-						362(91)**	276(91)*	.414(91)***	.235(91)*
Axis 3				•	-		-	232 (91)*		221(91)*
Depth-to-water	216(81)*									
Peat depth	368(69)**	~								
Vater temperature	•	256(79)*								
Substrate type		-	347(59)**							
Presence of ice			.314(72)**	.230(83)*						
Elevation			.386(72)**	.355(83)**		252(89)*				
Distance-to-coast			.341(72)**	.499(83)***		284(89)*	.781(91)***			
Latitude	.235(87)**	312(85)**				.446(89)***	.322(91)**	355(91)**		
Longitude		259(85)*	.365(72)**	.349(83)**		.243(89)*		.274(91)*		

The data suggest a nearly exclusionary relationship of pH to peat depth, in that pHs from less than 2.9 to 4.0 do not occur in peatlands with peat depths less than 1.5 m (see lower diagonal line on Fig. 15). It should also be noted that peat depths in excess of 3.9m were not uncommon in ecoregion 2E but could not be sampled; this is especially the case south of 51°N latitude. The relationship between wetland type and peat depth will be important in calculating peat (carbon) volumes for the Lowland, and the relationship between the two deserves close attention before 'average peat depths' are assigned to remotely mapped wetland types.

The relationship of pH to peat depth in ecoregions 0E and 1E shows generally elevated pHs northward, apparent even in peatland sites with permafrost. This may be partially attributable to undersampling of peat plateaus, or the result of sample water squeezed from dry peat in raised sites, or from higher oxidation in drier active layers. However, it remains a consistent shift to less acidic sites northward, and there are no anomalous outliers in the sampled data (Fig. 14).

GEOGRAPHIC VARIATION

There are strong correlations between peat depth, distance from the coast and elevation (Fig. 10), both of which also strongly and positively co-vary (r=.635, p>0.0001, n=305). This reflects the ongoing uplift of the Lowland from the sea over the past 5500 years, leaving behind flat marine clays suited to water retention and peat accumulation (Riley 2003, Fig. 18). The northward shift towards fen reflects the cooler climate of ecoregions 0E and 1E (restraining peat growth) and the shorter period of emergence from the Tyrrell Sea of most northern sample sites (less time for peat accumulation). In general, the greater the distance from the coast, the higher the elevation of the site, the longer the period of emergence and the deeper the peat accumulated as a result (other variables being equal).

As well, the prevalence of Sphagnum in bogs, because of its superior insulating properties, shifts northern bogs to palsa and peat plateau. The analysis of all sample sites illustrates this positive correlation of the presence of ice in the peat with higher latitude (Table 2, r=.575, P>0.0001, n=307), and also with elevation and with closeness-to-coast. (The impenetrability of ice in peat plateaus reduced the data on their peat depths below levels useful for analysis; it can be assumed that their frozen peats average >3m in depth based on the sites drilled to date by Zoltai and Tarnocai 1971, Railton and Sparling 1973, OCRS, etc.)

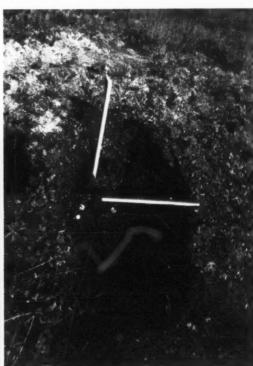
Surface-water pH increases with latitude, paralleling the shallower peat depths northward (Table 2, r=.513, P>0.0001, n=305). This reflects the nutrient contribution of mineral substrates in shallower peatlands, with less-acid surface waters as a result. The strong inverse correlation of surfacewater pH and depth-to-water illustrates that, where peatlands are driest (i.e., bogs, with deepest average peat depths) the surface waters are most nutrient poor.

These general co-variances of wetland characteristics are explicable by both geography and succession. The data fail to show comparable patterns in depth-to-water characteristics, water temperatures or substrate characteristics, variables which are probably more locally determinant, in the case of the first two, or a common attribute of all sites, as in the latter case, with marine clay and silt substrates underlaying wetlands throughout the Lowland.

The correlations based on sites in ecoregion 2E only (generally south of the Attawapiskat River) (Fig. 12, Table 3) corroborate the regional relationships. However, the geographic effects of site latitude are more muted (on surfacewater pH and presence of ice), while there is an even stronger correlation of site latitude with decreasing peat depth (depth declines northward, r=-.502, p>0.0001, n=206). This reflects the less dramatic climatic effects of Hudson Bay so far south, the general occurrence of only discontinuous permafrost, and the effect of cooling climate on slowing peat accumulation.

Because of the north-south axis of the western James Bay coast, it might be expected that strong positive correlations should occur between site longitude (and distance-fromcoast) and peat depth, reflecting increased landscape age towards the interior. These correlations are not strong, perhaps reflecting the particular topographic diversity of the southern Lowland, which is muted but powerful. There is a major topographic upland, the Kinoje till plateau, separating the Albany and Moose watersheds (Pala and Wischet 1982), and this somewhat mutes the relationship between site elevation and distance-to-coast. Except in near coastal sites, where peat depths are maximally constrained by the short duration of site emergence from the sea, peat depths vary considerably, dependent on local hydrology and topography, etc.





LEFT. Open lowshrub bog, on Moose-Albany watershed, Kinoje till plateau. RIGHT. Ice at 30cm, Moose-Albany watershed, Kinoje till plateau.

For sites in ecoregions 0E and 1E (generally north of the Attawapiskat River), there are stronger geographic patterns of environmental parameters because of the steeper and more uniform slope of the terrain northward, downhill, close to Hudson Bay (Fig. 12, Table 4); distance-from-coast and site elevation are dependent variables (r=.781, P>0.0001, n=91). The surface-water temperatures in the peatlands decline and the frequency of ice in the peat increases with proximity to the coast, and with north latitude.

Peat depths in ecoregions 0E and 1E are also positively associated with the presence of ice in the peat, in this case in the sampled palsas and peat plateaus, but also likely in other permafrost types. Peat depth also increases with site elevation and distance-from-coast, in this case generally towards the south and west of ecoregions 0E and 1E.

PERMAFROST

In general, the presence of ice, whether continuous or discontinuous, correlates most positively with latitude (Table 2) but also inversely with distance-to-coast and elevation, which are two strongly linked variables. These predictable results are based on relatively sparse sampling of the presence of ice, but the distribution of sites suggests a more widespread occurrence of discontinuous permafrost than previously considered, both towards the southwest interior as penetrable ice lenses (discontinuous ice) and southward along the James Bay coast as sporadic but impenetrable ice assumed to be >30cm thick (i.e., not penetrable by steel peat rods).

Surface-water temperatures were collected without expectation of overall trends but significant correlations emerged nonetheless. There is a positive correlation of temperature with peat depth and a negative correlation of temperature with depth-to-water, confirming field observations that cold is retained longest in drier, deeper peat types (i.e., bogs). There are also positive correlations with distance-to-coast and elevation (+ve), and a general shift to cooler water temperatures northward and closer to the coast, and with presence of ice at sites. Temperature is not usually considered a useful discriminator in field surveys, even where mid-summer temperatures are measured in consecutive years, as was the case here, but long-term monitoring of northern wetlands, especially permafrost systems, warrants closer study of peat temperatures, and a standardization of methods to survey water and peat temperatures.

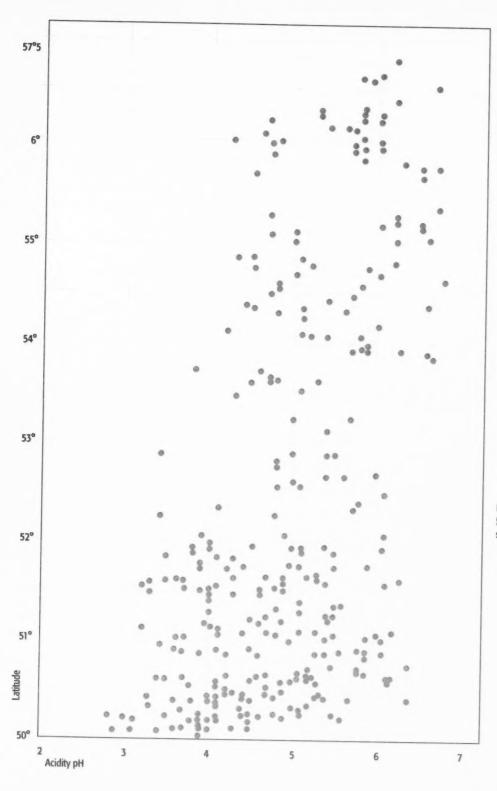


Fig. 14. Site latitude and surface-water pH.

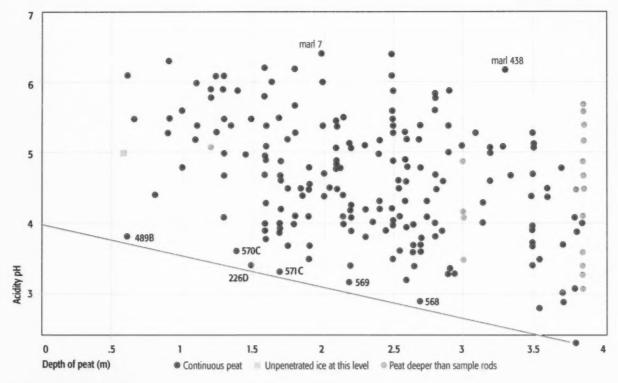


Fig. 15. Surface-water pH and peat depth in ecoregion 2E. (Outlier site numbers added, Fig. 5)

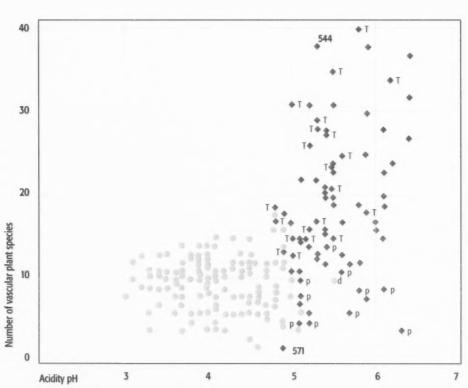
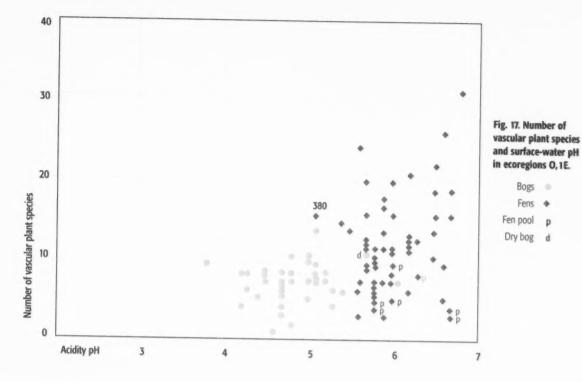


Fig. 16. Number of vascular plant species and surface-water pH in wetlands in ecoregion 2E.

Bogs
Fens •
Fen pool p
Treed fen T
Dry bog d

Bogs

Fens



SPECIES DIVERSITY

The predictability of lower floristic and insect diversity in acid bogs, in comparison with fens, is well documented (e.g., Riley 1994b) but is particularly dramatic in the Hudson Bay Lowland, in which species diversity is already reduced by latitude. The number of vascular plants per sample site in ecoregion 2E (Fig. 16) and in ecoregions 0E and 1E (Fig. 17) are plotted against surface-water pH. This shows the dramatic increase in species numbers at sites with pH greater than 4.9 (range of 4 to 40 species) and the contracted range of species at sites with pH less than 4.8 (2 to 15). Also illustrated is the decrease in potential species at northern sites (Fig. 17), reflecting the northward decline in species diversity at higher latitudes (Riley 2003).

AFFINITIES OF COMMON WETLAND PLANT SPECIES

Common wetland species are indicated in the dominance types and site types catalogued in this overview (App. B, C) and are noted in particular for mineral wetlands in the keys to wetland types (App A). The common wetland species of mineral wetlands (marsh, meadow marsh, water) do not vary with the predictability or usefulness of many peatland species, whose presence (or presence at a particular cover value) can be considered as diagnostic of a

peatland type (Table 5). Many species have been graphed (surface-water pH vs. cover percent; such as for Carex limosa; Riley 1982, Fig. 5), and those that commonly achieve cover values >10% are included as App. D to illustrate their particular pH signatures. There is considerable fidelity in the occurrence of species within distinct pH ranges, and that many of them reach highest cover values at presumably 'optimal' pH's.

The predictability of such species occurrences is useful to field workers in rapidly characterizing particular sites as to physiognomic group or dominance type. They are valuable in judging a site to be either bog or fen, and for further judging the nutrient status, or 'richness,' of a fen (Table 5).

Particularly interesting is the apparent shift in pH preferences of species northward in ecoregions 0E and 1E. For example, Larix laricina was recorded at various cover values in ecoregions 0E and 1E within a pH range of 4.6 to 6.6, whereas in ecoregion 2E it was recorded within the pH range of 2.8 to 6.4. Thus it is a weak FEN indicator to the north but a more generalist species southward in the lowland. However, at cover values greater than 7%, it is a strong fen indicator in all three ecoregions.





ECOREGION 2E

Strong Bog Indicators (pH<5.2)**

Carex oligosperma (rarely to pH 5.3)
Carex pauciflora (pH<4.8)
Cladina spp. (rarely present at higher pHs)
Cladopodiella fluitans
Eriorphorum spissum
Kalmia angustifolia (rarely to pH 5.3)**
Carex rariflora (rare in 2E)
Rubus chamaemorus**
Vaccinium myrtilloides (pH<4.2)**

Strong Fen Indicators (pH>4.8)*

Aulocomnium palustre* Campylium stellatum* Carex diandra (pH>5.0)* Carex exilis Carex interior (pH>5.0)* Carex lasiocarpa Carex livida Drepanocladus revolvens (pH>5.6) Drepanocladus fluitans Eriophorum viridicarinatum Potentilla fruticosa (pH>5.3) Rubus acaulis (pH>5.6) Salix pedicellaris Scirpus hudsonianus (rarely to pH 4.7) Scorpidium scorpioides (pH>5.0)* Solidago uliginosa (pH>5.0) Triglochin maritima (pH>5.0)* Utricularia comuta (pH>5.0) Utricularia intermedia (rarely to pH 4.5)* Utricularia minor (pH>5.0)

Generalists

Carex limosa Drepanocladus exannulatus Sarracenia purpurea Scheuchzeria palustris Smilacina trifolia

Indicators at Higher Covers

Andromeda glaucophylla (pH>5.0 at >15% cover)
Carex chordorrhiza (pH>5.0 at >10% cover)
Chamaedaphne calyculata (pH<5.0 at >20% cover)
Larix laricina (pH>4.8 at >10% cover)
Ledum groenlandicum (pH<5.5 at >7% cover)
Picea mariana (pH<5.5 at >10% cover)

Weak Bog Indicators (pH<5.5)

Carex magellanica
Empetrum nigrum (rare species)
Kalmia polifolia (rarely to pH>6.0)
Sphagnum fuscum (rarely to pH6.0
at <15% cover)**

Weak Fen Indicators (pH>4.5)

Betula pumila (pH>4.7 at >10% cover)*
Carex aquatilis (rarely to pH 4.4)*
Carex utriculata*
Equisetum fluviatile*
Menyanthes trifoliata (pH>4.8 *
at >10% cover)
Tomenthypnum nitens
(rarely to pH 4.0 at <5% cover)*

- Asterisked species are also predictable species of freshwater marsh.
- ** Double-asterisked species are also predictable species of conifer swamp.
- *** Species names follow Riley (2003); synonyms are noted in Appendix E.

TOP LEFT. Carex livida

LEFT. Andromeda glaucophylla

RIGHT TOP. Solidago uliginosa

RIGHT CENTER. Carex oligosperma

RIGHT BOTTOM. Rubus chamaemorus

ECOREGIONS OE and 1E

Strong Bog Indicators (pH<5.2)**

Carex oligosperma (rare) Rubus chamaemorus** Vaccinium myrtilloides (pH<4.6)**

Strong Fen Indicators (pH>4.8)*

Aulocomnium palustre* Campylium stellatum (pH>5.0) Carex chordorrhiza Carex diandra (pH>5.6)* Carex interior (pH>5.6)* Carex livida (pH>5.6) Carex microglochin (pH>5.0) Carex utriculata (pH>5.6)* Drepanocladus exannulatus Drepanocladus revolvens (pH>5.5) Drosera anglica Equiseum fluviatile (pH>5.0)* Eriophorum viridicarinatum (pH>5.6) Menyanthes trifoliata (pH>5.0)* Potentilla fruticosa (pH>5.5) Rubus acaulis (pH>5.0) Salix pedicellaris (pH>5.3) Scirpus hudsonianus Scorpidium scorpioides (rarely less than pH>5.0)* Solidago uliginosa (pH>5.4) Tomenthypnum nitens (pH>5.4)* Utricularia cornuta (pH>5.5) Utricularia intermedia (pH>5.3)* Utricularia minor (pH>5.8)*

Generalists

Carex rariflora Empetrum nigrum Ledum groenlandicum Sarracenia purpurea Smilacina trifolia Scheuchzeria palustris

Indicators at Higher Covers

Carex limosa (pH>5.0 at >25% cover) Chamaedaphne calyculata (pH<5.0 at >20% cover) Cladina spp. (pH<5.0 at >10% cover)

Weak Bog Indicators (pH<5.5)

Carex magellanica Cladopodiella fluitans Eriophorum spissum (rarely to pH 5.7) Picea mariana** Sphagnum fuscum (rarely to pH 5.8)**

Weak Fen Indicators (pH>4.5)

Andromeda glaucophylla (rare) Andromeda polifolia (rarely to pH 4.2) Betula pumila* Carex aquatilis* Larix laricina Scirpus cespitosus (rarely to pH 4.4)











Wetland Succession

In the previous section, the variability of wetlands was discussed at broad geographic scales; in particular, the controlling influences of increasing distance-from-coast and site elevation, and of increased peat depth and lower surface-water pHs and nutrient availability. In this section, wetland variability is discussed at the scale of particular wetland types, as they succeed from one to another along those general gradients, and as they change over time, and as they occur in various patterns of differing wetland types.

The wetlands of the Hudson Bay Lowland are uniquely complex, diverse and patterned systems in which substrate deposition and vegetation development over time are driven by both external and internal processes. The region's location on the core landscape of the ancient Laurentide ice sheet, subsequently inundated by one of the globe's southernmost winter-frozen seas, resulted in unusually uniform claydominated (impermeable) substrates across the entire region. These factors, modified by the subsequent uplift of the land above sea level and changes in climate over the past 6000 years, were the primary external drivers shaping the region.

These externalities set the stage for a range of internal processes: vegetative growth; peat accumulation and water retention; paludification at local and landscape scales;

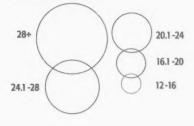
in-filling of depressions; acidification by *Sphagnum*; pattern formation; permafrost accretion and decay; drainage shifts; and, locally, thermokarst and limestone karst. Dominant within these processes is a trajectory of change, through paludification and acidification, that is apparent throughout the Lowland, as marsh-to-fen-to-bog (-to-permafrost). This temporal succession is analogous to the lateral succession, through peat accumulation, that occurs as land emerges from the ocean. Close to the emergent coasts are marsh and shallow fen, where the unpaludified and complex interrelations of beachridges and tidelines, intervening swales and drainways, and panne-and-sward mosaics, provide insight into similar patterns among complex interior peatlands, which also reflect subtle topographic change and, northward, seasonal and continuous permafrost.

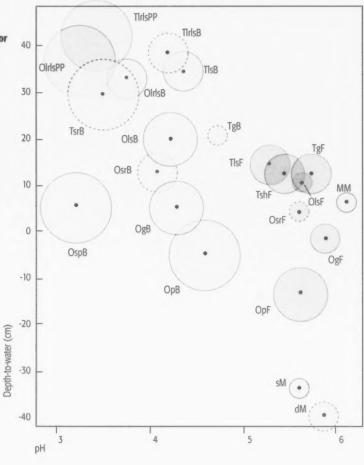
Fig. 18. Average surface pH and depth-to-water for major peatland types, with average peat depths.

Forn	nations	Physiognomic Group					
PP	Peat Plateau	sh	Shrub-rich				
В	Bog	15	Lowshrub				
F	Fen	Ir	Lichen-rich				
MM	Meadow Marsh	g	Graminoid				
M	Marsh	sp	Sphagnum				
		d	Deep				
Subf	Formations	5	Shallow				
0	OPEN						
T	TREED						

Dashed lines indicate groups insufficiently sampled

Average peat depth (cm)





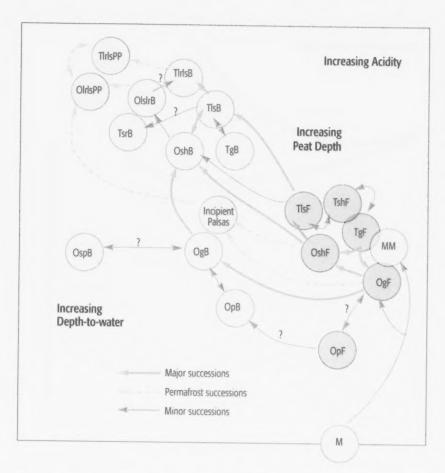


Fig. 19. Successional trends among major peatland types.

Formations

PP Peat Plateau

B Bog

F Fen

MM Meadow Marsh

M Marsh

SubFormations

O OPEN

T TREED

Physiognomic Groups

sh Shrub

Is Lowshrub

Ir Lichen-rich

g Graminoid

sp Sphagnum

p Pool

Experience suggests a set of interpretative themes that may assist a field worker in understanding a particular wetland in the context of regional and temporal succession. Considering these interdependent variables at site-specific scales can help interpret local wetland variability.

- Vegetation Patterns
- · Waterflow, Hydrology and Topography
- · Peat Stratigraphy
- Permafrost
- Location Sequences

The interrelatedness of these factors cannot be overstated. This can be visualized by a graphic representation of the wetland types and their major environmental variables. Figure 18 portrays the general relationship of wetland type with peat depth, depth-to-water and surface-water pH, and illustrates the distinctions — over and above vegetation — that distinguish the types. This representation corroborates field interpretations of wetland succession, both major and minor, based on floristic affinities, residual indicator

species, and wetland patterns. These perceived successions are reinforced by the geographic trends in increased peat depth, increased depth-to-water and decreased surfacewater pH, as superimposed on the same graph of wetland types in figure 19 (Riley 1982, 1994a,b; Jeglum and Cowell 1982). This illustrates the successional pathways for low wet sites (the mesosere), which dominate as much as 90% of the Lowland. Not included on this figure are the complementary successional pathways for raised dry sites (the xerosere), which largely lead from coastal herbaceous ridge cover, for example, through forest and thicket, to swamp, to treed bog and, similarly, then to Sphagnum-dominated systems, based on gradual peat accumulation, the flattening of landscape gradient over time, and climate cooling, leading to landscape-scale paludification. While not the dominant succession in the region, this terrestrial-to-wetland succession has been documented in the Lowland by Sjörs (1963), McAndrews et al. (1982), Glooschenko and Martini (1983), and Klinger and Short (1996).



Puccinellia phryganodes intertidal marsh, southwest James Bay.

VEGETATION PATTERNS

MINERAL WETLANDS

Mineral wetlands dominate 90% of the 1290-km coast of Ontario's Hudson Bay Lowland (Glooschenko 1980a,b), and also occur along all of its major and minor rivers and streams, and as more minor elements on other terrain types. Along the coast it is the slope of the land that controls the width of intertidal marshes and the extent of high-tide inundation of supratidal marshes. Rising and lowering tides flow in and around the intervening beachridges thrown up on the emerging coasts by storm events. The widest expression of marshes is along the gently sloped coast of James Bay, and the same types occur along Hudson Bay, although they are horizontally compressed there by steeper slopes. Similarly, the width of meadow marshes along rivers is a function of the slope of the land away from the rivers, the size of the rivers, and the width of the flood-scour zone, with the widest riparian marshes occurring along major rivers with gently sloping banks, and around river islands.

Intertidal marshes dominated by *Puccinellia phryganodes*, and by *Carex subspathacea*, *C. glareosa* and *C. mackenziei*, can have dense cover varying from less than 5% to more than 90% shoreward. Its various associates all dominate their own series (App. A, B; Riley and McKay 1980). *Puccinellia phryganodes*, the coastal dominant, is an asexual saltmarsh grass that binds its clay substrates and has a circum-

polar distribution based on stem breakage, ice rafting and shoreline currents. Shoreward, these wetlands can be arrayed as broad homogeneous marshlands, but they can also be arrayed in mosaic patterns of shallow ponds linked by narrow drains, flowing around raised *Puccinellia*

swards, a pattern that is largely a function of ice rafting. Marsh vegetation becomes frozen into shorebound ice, and is lifted (rafted) off at spring break up by high tides, and relocated to other intertidal sites, or pushed up into supratidal sites or high-tide lines, or broken up at sea (Redfield 1972). The sites from which Puccinellia swards are rafted become the weakly vegetated pool phase of the mosaic pattern, separating the residual swards and dumps of lifted materials. Coastal waters can have salinities less than 1/2 to 1/3 of normal salt water, but pool-pannes can retain waters at low tide, evaporate quickly, and have elevated soil salinities as a result (Glooschenko 1980a,b). Salinity levels can also rise because ice rafts remove impermeable surface sediments, revealing coarser sediments beneath, in which upward hydraulic gradients can occur, resulting in hypersaline conditions (Price et al. 1988). Once established, this panne-sward pattern can persist into the supratidal zone, and beyond.

The pannes and swards support, as a result, a range of associations often dominated by single species, either emergent or submergent. *Eleocharis smallii* and *Scirpus maritimus*, for example, can form single-species stands with cover values from <10% to >80%. Shoreward, other species begin to dominate; such as *Carex paleacea* and *Potentilla anserina* var. *groenlandica*, among many, as species more typical of supratidal meadow marsh appear.

Panne-pools support obligate halophytes. Linear patterns can also be present, some indicating ice-rafting lines, while others suggest more subtle and less explicable parallel ribbing, perhaps associated with recessional strand lines or microtopographical waves as the coast rises and the tides withdraw.

The transition between intertidal and supratidal sites on the coast can be well defined by many of the parallel beachridges, which define the limits of normal tides. The rapidly rising coast throws up unique displays of parallel beachridges, made more complex by spits like Puskwuche and Longridge on southwest James Bay (tips of a bedrockcontrolled moraine) that have beachridges splayed around their topographic spines. In some stretches, the coastline is uninterrupted by beachridges, and storm-tide or high-tide deposits of debris can then mark the boundaries between intertidal and supratidal sites. In supratidal sites above the normal tide limits (but subject to spring and storm tides), dense graminoids and shrubs dominate. Of the former, combined transect results show the dominance of Festuca rubra, Eleocharis smallii, Carex paleacea and Juncus balticus. Of these, the Festuca series dominates, predictably with cover values more than 50%, and often as a co-dominant in other meadow series. Coarser-substrate sites are dominated by Juncus balticus and Calamagrostis stricta, for example, and with more forb-rich associations than in intertidal marshes. Supratidal marsh pools and drains still have dominants

such as Carex paleacea (often >80% cover), and shallow-water series dominated by Eleocharis smallii and others. Potamogeton filiformis and other pondweeds also dominates pools and pannes.

Supratidal marshes and meadow marshes are more species diverse. In these sites, the same coastal patterns of panne-sward mosaics and linear features often occur, but are often masked by rigorous vegetative growth, including thicket swamps and shrub-rich meadow marshes. Willow and alder thicket swamps dominate many of the transitions between open water and upland sites, and, in estuaries, can dominate broad flat areas, such as the species-rich thicket swamps dominating the southern part of Shipsands Island, in the mouth of the Moose River.

Estuarine patterns differ from coastal patterns. 1) The absence of beachridges parallel to the shores softens the distinctions between intertidal and supratidal situations. 2) Riparian erosion, especially by spring ice, results in heightened rivermouth diversity and more parallel-to-river patterning in the vegetation. James Bay's estuarine sites have similar dominants, such as Carex paleacea (>90%), and the floristic similarities are understandable, given the weak salinity of James Bay in general, and the weak effects of estuaries as a result. The pattern of tidal salinity in estuarine situations, such as in the mouth of the Moose River (Riley and McKay 1980), shows an upriver surge of cold saline James Bay water more or less confined to bottom strata and for only a short period at high tide. Estuarine sites differ from coastal sites in the absence of obligate halophytic vegetation. Uplift is such that marsh transects sampled only thirty years ago now appear to have shifted significantly towards their higher-elevation descendents.

The same marsh vegetation that dominates the James Bay coast also occurs along the Hudson Bay coast, but augmented with numerous subarctic species that dominate their own series; shrub wetlands dominated by Salix brachycarpa, S. planisolia and S. glauca, for example, and marsh dominated by Carex subspathacea, C. glareosa and Dupontia fisheri (App. B,C). Hudson Bay marshes tend to be smaller and more fragmented than on James Bay because of the denser hordes of beachridges that are packed more



Intertidal marsh at low tide, southwest James Bay.

closely together on the steeper grades. The inter-ridge transitions between ridge-marsh-pond-marsh-ridge can be tight, and have many phases that are transitional into peatland/tundra types completely different than any types along James Bay.

The rivers and streams along Hudson Bay have highly diverse riparian meadow marshes and thickets, more diminutive than at southern sites, and complicated by the presence of ground ice and of active layers of varying depths. For example, river levees can have the appearance of terrestrial conifer forest but with similar vegetation to conifer swamp. Underlaying some of these are frozen, laminated levee sediments (alternately ice and sediment), helping explain their similarities to wetland vegetation.

Farther away again from the coast, freshwater marshes increase, and organic freshwater situations develop, beginning the slow shift towards minerotrophic fens and swamps as water flow decreases and peat accumulates. Southward, sites can be dominated by *Typha latifolia*, with others dominated by *Carex*, *Scirpus*, *Salix*, *Menyanthes trifoliata* and *Utricularia vulgaris*. Willow and alder thicket swamps dominate many of the transitions to upland sites.

In coastal mineral wetlands, the major successional sequences are from marsh to meadow marsh, and from open water to shallow marsh and then meadow marsh. These sequences are most clear on the raised, sward phases of mineral wetlands, but are less clear for the panne-pool phases of mineral wetlands, which may fill in and become marsh, shallow fen or fen pools, depending on their water regimes. Regardless, it is notable that mineral wetlands, whether coastal or riparian, are highly disturbed by active depositional or erosional processes, such as the development of panne-sward mosaics, tide-mark lines, linear drawdown ribbing and ice-break-up scouring. As a result, they can change rapidly in their vegetation composition and in their internal drainage, and thus in their succession.

ORGANIC WETLANDS

Figures 18 and 19 illustrate the fundamental peatland successions. At the broadest of areal and temporal scales, the major sequences of succession are driven by deepening peat, which isolates surface vegetation from nutrient-bearing mineral substrates, and by increased effective surface dryness and surface-water acidity as a result. In summary, marsh succeeds to meadow marsh, meadow marsh to fen (or swamp), fen (or swamp) to bog and, climate dependent,

fen and bog to palsa and/or peat plateau. Depth of peat increases, site dryness increases, and surface-water pH decreases.

Within these general patterns, it is worthwhile reflecting on three complementary trajectories. First, again, the sequence for deepening-peat types are predominantly from marsh and meadow-marsh, to open graminoid and shrub fen, and from fen to bog over time. However, the dominance of these types by trees, thickets and/or shrubs can vary at various stages along the way, in either meadow marsh, fen, bog or swamp, and can be reversible or alterable by either rising effective water levels, or by fire. Second, the pool-wetland sequences are less clear but appear to be from open coastal water and marsh (panne) phases, into interior freshwater shallow marsh, and to fen and bog pools, and other open water patterns within peatland complexes.

Third, seasonal and sporadic ice occurs first (and southern-most) under raised, deep-peat bog mounds (or islands, treed or shrub-rich), and under fen and bog pools. North-ward, this seasonal ice becomes permanent under the same types first, and extends laterally under other *Sphagnum*-dominant sites (especially those with trees and shrubs), thus becoming a significant element of peatland patterning. The extent to which discontinuous permafrost helps define the netting of bogs and fens, and the terracing of string bogs and fens in the central Lowland is clear from peat probing but as yet understudied. Northward again, the role of permafrost becomes dominant, raising palsas and peat plateaus, and defining broad tundra fen plateaus and thermokarst peat plateaus, the latter lake systems driven by wind erosion downwind and by peat deposition upwind.

Another key driver is *Sphagnum* itself. First is its superior insulating properties, which permit frost and ice to be retained more durably and with significant expansion (and raising) of the peat profile. Second, *Sphagnum* actively binds available nutrients and thus acidifies surface waters in which it grows, modifying its habitat to favour its own growth and propagation (Shotyk 1988, Crum and Planisek 1992). Finally, *Sphagnum* peats are slower to decompose, which contributes to its enduring, "climax" role in wetlands like bog and peat plateau, unless they are set back by climate warming (or drying), permafrost melting, or wildfire.



Wetland succession has been called "one of the classical examples of unidirectional plant succession" (Sjörs 1963). However, associating the full range of peatland successions to the various multi-directional possibilities for succession, Sjörs coined the term "polyclimax" for the various intersecting successions at work in any particular wetland complex, which give rise to extremely diverse patterns in the Lowland (1961). Some of the successions he mentioned were:

- i) At a local level, the hummock-hollow microtopography of some open ombrotrophic bogs, which may be engaged in a cyclic reciprocal-replacement succession;
- ii) The local role of beaver in blocking drainage and drowning bogs, fens and thicket swamps, causing meadow marsh and marsh development, eventually reverting if abandoned:
- iii) Ponds in peatlands can be secondary waterbodies independent of subsurface topography, but can coalesce and broaden to the extent that mineral substrates are contacted, with a possible consequent input of nutrients into the water regime of adjacent peat systems.

Sjörs had no helicopter support and thus had limited access to the full progression of wetland types (and patterns) from coast to interior, and we can thus add to his list of associate successions, in particular the subtle shoreline topographies - such as panne-sward mosaics, and semi-parallel ribs and channels — that may also underlay interior wetland patterns, i.e., are perpetuated from coastal meadow marsh, through incipient fen, into interior peat systems. Thus, coastal geomorphological processes may help explain some interior patterns,

Sphagnum bog encroachment onto marl fen, Kinoje Lake area.

such as channel fens (based on coastal inter-ridge channels) or bog and fen pool patterns (based on tidal ice-rafting and panne-sward mosaics).

Some of the recurrent and widespread peatland patterns of the area are still poorly understood; for example, the development of the "string" patterning in fens and bogs, in which terraced ribs and pools (flarks, rimpis) are oriented perpendicular to water flow. Hypotheses such as Hamelin's (1957) "glissonage" concept suggest that differential ice freezing and thawing may play a role in perpetuating this terracing (similar to polygon formation). Certainly, ice persists longest in ribs.

The successional themes indicated on figure 19 are also based on observations of sites that appear transitional from one type to another, or appear out-of-equilibrium or vestigial at a site:

- i) Sites where fen indicators like Larix laricina and Betula pumila persist as mature individuals at low cover values but where bog otherwise prevails; the tamarack can be persisting as dead stumps or be visibly buried by Sphagnum. (The reverse, mature Picea mariana as remnants, alive or dead, does not occur in fens, though there can be Picea die-back by beaver-flooded meadow marsh.)
- ii) "Breakdown" sites where treed bog or fen can be largely graminoid and in which trees are dead (by drying, acidifying in bogs, by rising water in fens).
- iii) "Incipient" palsa sites where peat elevation through ice flotation is minimal and apparently only marginally successful on a year-to-year basis.
- iv) "Immature" coastal fens where peat accumulation is low and meadow marsh species persist at low cover values, but with bog "islands" or bog "pocks" (or "incipient" palsas) also present.
- v) Complexes where measured differences in peat depth and pHs between "hummock and hollow" or "ridge and hollow" suggest that fen and bog can coexist in such patterns more commonly in areas of low peat accumulation (coastward) than in interior sites with deep peat.
- vi) Wildfire occurs almost exclusively on raised bog or boglike palsa or peat plateau, and never in fen. (Some postburn sites show heightened paludification as a result.)
- vii) Swamp is usually confined to better drained sites, some of them affected by beaver to some degree; the resulting meadows and thickets cycle through the beaver-flood cycle, a short-term cycling within the longer-term Lowland successions.

PATTERN TYPES

A variety of complementary classifications of pattern in the Lowland have been based on the morphology and aerial display of wetland types (Zoltai et al. 1974; Tarnocai 1979; NWWG 1988:415-427; Riley 1994a:55-59; Mortsch 1990, Chap. 3). There are also unpatterned systems, which constitute a distinct pattern in itself. Thus, every wetland is patterned at various scales, usually involving multiple wetland types, successions and exceptions, and terms like the following have been used to describe some of the common patterns.

Raised Permafrost Patterns

- Mounds and palsas (fen, bog)
- Peat plateaus (bog-like plateaus with discrete hummock-hollow phases, i.e., raised mounds netted by insterstitial drainways; fen-like plateaus without hummock-hollow phasing and not interrupted by notably deeper interstitial drains)
- m Polygon (permafrost peatlands)

- Margins (shrub tundra fen or bog edges)
- Pools (fen, bog)
- Thermokarst (lakes from pond sizes to large lake sizes)
- Collapse scars (fen, bog, mound, palsa)

Plain or Plateau Patterns

- Flat (bog, marsh, meadow marsh)
 Panne-sward (marsh, meadow marsh)
- Terraced and drainway systems String, ladder, ribbed or feather (marsh, meadow marsh, fen, bog)
- Pool-pond systems (may also be terraced) Lattice or net (patterns of treed or open, shrub or graminoid; fen, bog, or fen and bog) Lattice or net (pool patterns, 10–90% open water, of variable sizes; fen, bog, pool, open water)
- Islands (treed bog, treed fen, swamp)
- Margins (conifer or thicket swamp, treed fen or bog, shrub fen or bog, tundra margins)

Unpatterned systems Horizontal (swamp, fen)

Sloping (swamp, fen) Channel (marsh, meadow marsh, fen)

Basin Patterns

- Stream, floodplain or riparian systems
 Alluvial (swamp)
 Riparian, and ice-scoured
 (marsh, meadow marsh, thicket swamp)
 Stream (marsh, fen, swamp)
- m Floating or shore (marsh, fen, bog, swamp)
- Basin (marsh, fen, bog, swamp)
- Sinkhole (meadow, fen or bog)
- Seepage (marsh, fen)
- Kettle (marsh, fen, bog, water)
- Beaver flood (marsh, meadow marsh, fen, water)
- Flat (marsh, meadow marsh, fen, bog, swamp)

WATERFLOW, HYDROLOGY and TOPOGRAPHY

A primary determinant of wetland vegetation, pattern and succession is waterflow, which is influenced by local topography, however minor. The Lowland has innumerable watersheds and mapping them presents many challenges. This is particularly obvious along any major river. A field worker along the central Attawapiskat River, for example, would be comfortable with the similarities of that river, in terms of flow rates and seasonal hydrology, to its Canadian Shield analogues, but such comfort would only extend to the immediate, adjacent riparian and levee systems. A kilometre beyond the river puts a field worker on a marine clay plain supporting deep peat systems within which the lateral flow of water is measured in decades, not seasons, and in which direction of flow may be, in fact, away from the closest down-cut river. As a result, the Lowland can be viewed as having two distinct hydrological systems: one, the highenergy, high-flow systems of major down-cut, flow-through rivers and coastal tide zones; and two, the low-energy, lowflow systems of the dominant clay-plain peatland systems. The two are distinct in vegetation and other biota, and in succession and ecological processes.

Coastal systems have surficial microtopographic patterns that are the result of water drainage through and across surfaces such as panne-sward mosaics, tide-line breaks, parallel ribs and inter-ridge drains, features that drain or block water with variable efficiencies. Their variable drainage efficiency likely influences their seasonal (and multi-year) water storage and, as a result, their organic accumulation. Nevertheless, coastward and near rivers, all water, whether groundwater, precipitation or flow-through from the Shield, are in direct contact with non-Shield mineral substrates and are thus richer in available nutrients than the waters of deep-peat systems on the clay plains and till plateaus of the Lowland. By contrast, in peatland systems, water flow and the variability of water level and nutrient availability, is based more directly on local precipitation and evapotranspiration, and the water-retention capacity of peat itself.

Lowland peatlands likely retain a volume of water equivalent to the volume of water in Lake Erie or Lake Ontario. The turnover period for the water in Lake Ontario is six years. For the Lowland it is likely many, many centuries. No longitudinal studies have been conducted of wetland water-retention rates or the movement of water in

Lowland peatlands. One of the few regionally relevant hydrological studies was in the Kennedy Bog complex, northeast of Cochrane (Dai 1971, Dai et al. 1974). Over the course of one summer (mid-June to mid-September), the level of waters in lakes varied within a range of 10cm; in conifer swamp within 16cm; in treed bog within 16.5cm; and in open bog and poor fen within 10cm. Thus, in absolute terms (based on depths from substrate), water depths varied by 6 to 14 cm over the summer. Depths increased immediately after rain events, lowering slowly thereafter. By mid-September, water levels were not significantly different from those in mid-June. Based on this study, in an area of higher evapotranspiration rates, overall water retention was still positive and stable, favouring peat accumulation as a result.

What influences wetland vegetation is the position of a water table relative to the surface vegetation, not its absolute depth, and there are mechanisms that help stabilize the relative water levels in some systems, such as fens, despite significant annual or seasonal changes in absolute water volumes in a system. For example, fen peatlands float to a considerable degree; at Kinoje, a 90cm difference in absolute peat depth was recorded from one wet year's freeze-up to the next (dry) summer and autumn, without evidence of any significant change in relative depth-to-water in the fen (pers. comm., H. Lumsden, formerly OMNR Wildlife Research). The laminated graminoid peats that underlay open fens can physically expand and contract more so than the fibric Sphagnum peats of bogs, and can maintain more stable water-level relationships than other wetland types. Fluctuating, relative water levels are of most consequence to vegetation succession and carbon sequestration (and emissions of methane), but it is likely that absolute water levels, affected by climate and evapotranspiraton rates, are of most consequence to retaining stored carbon overall.

The Kennedy Bog study also mapped its waterflow directions, out of the peatland into lakes and drainways, which were themselves the deepest topographic depressions in the area even though they too were deeply covered with peat and muck. Such subsurface topography, and even the more subtle microtopography northward in the Lowland, is a key determinant of drainage and of vegetation, whether in coastal panne-sward mosaics, inter-ridge drains or subtle downslope ribbing, or where the same topography underlays interior fens or bogs.

"The direction of water flow is always easy to determine in patterned peatland, being at right angles to the ridges and depressions, which are thus parallel to the contour curves" (Sjörs 1963). This holds true in subarctic peatlands globally, both in bogs and fens. A corollary of this is that the elements of a pattern that separate peat depressions, (raised ribs or strings or mounds that separate low pools or open fen or bog) are, in effect, markers of slight differences in surficial elevation, a subtle landscape terracing. The terracing can be almost imperceptible, so much so that differences in the persistence of grounded or buoyant ice (year-round or seasonal) may also determine patterning. Sjörs measured water-level drops as high as 26cm between consecutive bog pools in a patterned bog in the central Lowland. In a ribbed (string) fen in the same area, however, he counted the number of flarks (graminoid or pool fens) as 200 to the mile, and calculated each adjacent terrace drop at about a quarter of an inch, about 0.5cm (Sjors 1963).

Water movement itself is of consequence. Water movement itself effectively makes nutrients more available to vegetation, thus influencing vegetation pattern, deposition and peatland topography. Water movement is an indirect factor influencing the concentrations of iron, manganese and aluminum in surface waters (Dai 1971). As a rule, the lateral flow of water is least in bog, greater in fen, and greater still in marsh and meadow marsh.

Finally, the seepage of groundwater out of raised subglacial deposits, beachridges and river banks enhances available nutrients, particularly calcium, in downstream systems. In the Lowland, nutrient-rich calcareous marl fens can be the result, and also the beneficiary of longer growing seasons as a result of the high-lime substrates, with regionally anomalous high species diversities as a result. Along riverbanks and lakeshores, the same groundwater seepage gives rise to minerotrophic systems such as swamp, meadow marsh and marsh.

PEAT STRATIGRAPHY

Wetland succession and pattern are most directly interpretable from studies of peat stratigraphy, or peat-cores or lake-cores, which have been done only rarely in the Ontario Lowland. Jeglum and Cowell (1982) cautioned that the "elucidation of successional pathways required more detailed study of stratigraphy." In the field, this interpretation of peat stratigraphy can be done by visual inspection of peat in the hand,

which can help interpret peatland succession at a site. First, the association of the immediate surface vegetation with its surficial peat warrants confirmation, followed by the observation of the succeeding, discrete, underlaying intervals of peats of various origins, based on visual and tactile inspection of fibre composition and peat decomposition. For example, a dominant *Sphagnum*-moss peat normally indicates bog conditions at the time of deposition, and increasing levels of woody peat indicate a treed or shrub condition. Dominance by brown-moss peat or sedge peat normally indicates fen conditions at the time of decomposition, with increased amounts of mineral materials indicating marsh and meadow marsh peats.

Basal sediments indicate particular deposition environments. By far the dominant substrates underlaying Lowland wetlands are marine clay, clay, clay till and silty clay till (and lacustrine clay). Rarely, other substrates were encountered, (which may themselves be underlain by clay sediments), including sand, fine sand, sandy silt and silt. Only very rarely were typical aquatic substrates encountered, in restricted infill basins on highlands; mostly gyttja, the white-green-grey-brown substrate with diverse plant and animal remains indicating a nutrient-rich deposition environment. More frequently, and adjacent to raised deposits, were basal marls made up of charophytes and other carbonate materials, indicating calcareous groundwater influence at the time of deposition. Also occurring as basal peats are, occasionally, hard, woody forest-swamp peats indicating drier earlier conditions, and resisting sampling, even breaking off auger heads, such as near Jog Lake in 2009 (others also report similar initial forest-swamp periods; Sjors 1963, Klinger and Short 1996). Seeds and other identifiable indicator plant materials can also be present (Riley 1994a). While wetland initiation elsewhere is often associated with aquatic environments, Lowland wetlands are almost all initiated directly as marsh and meadow marsh.

However, at the regional scale, the substrates underlaying Lowland wetlands do little to differentiate them because they are so uniformly clay- or silt-based, and impermeable throughout (Tables 2-4). The peat accumulating on that substrate, however, is also generally predictable. Generally, the lower stratum is basal sedge peat, followed (upward) by a period of sedge, shrub and brown moss (and occasionally tree wood), overlain by *Sphagnum*-dominated peats (Klinger and Short 1996). Similarly, the gross stratigraphy under large wetlands south of the Lowland, in northeast Ontario (ecoregion 3E and south), show comparable general pat-

terns (Riley 1994b). Under treed and open bog systems, the top quartiles of peat were comprised of 75% to 99% moss peat respectively (peat pH 4.4, n=20, and pH 4.4, n=74, respectively). The lower quartiles of peat contained 31% and 28% sedge peat respectively (peat pH 5.9, n=12, and pH 5.9, n=55), illustrating the succession from sedge to moss, and to increased acidity. Under treed and open fen, however, the percentage of sedge peat was consistent from lower quartiles to top quartiles (average 30%, n=100), illustrating their enduring stability over time.

In 1957 Sjörs sampled a cross-section of a palsa west of Hawley Lake, illustrating its raised, continuous frozen core and its ice-lens bibs (1961). Ice expansion had raised its surface more than 1m, and its total thickness was 4m over clay. Sjörs also sampled (1963) a 1.3m peat core from the central Lowland (Muketei-Attawapiskat area), observing 1m of Sphagnum peat over 30cm woody fen peat, over marine clay with arctic mollusks. Terasmae and Hughes analyzed its pollen, which was dominated throughout by Picea, but with basal foraminifera and high sedge (Cyperaceae) pollen counts indicating its saltmarsh origins (1960). The lower level had a peak in Betula, an indicator of a shoreline or shrub phase, progressing upward into peat relatively abundant in Ericaceae and Sphagnum, indicating the succession to its modern bog stage. The basal peat was dated to 4700 ±80 yBP, at elevation 114m ASL. Sjörs interpreted emergence from the sea, and transition from marsh, through fen to bog. He also cored another transect across the draining edge of a treed bog, also illustrating its stratigraphic progression from cool coastal conditions (with indicators like the moss Drepanocladus tundrae), up through woody fen peat, through Sphagnum peats, to its modern black spruce bog. A major, modern riparian burn layer was also noted.

In July 1978, the author assisted in coring the Pipowitan peat plateau, a raised palsa field, or lichen-rich peat plateau, as coalesced palsa fields are termed (55°59'N, 88°48"W). It had a 25cm active layer, overlying 3.1m of peat, overlying at least 5cm of frozen clay. Pollen and spores from its lowest 10cm were dominated by sedges and grasses, indicative of its origins as a mineral wetland, and its middle 10cm was dominated by *Sphagnum*, *Picea* and a variety of shrubs, indicating the shift towards bog. Its top 10cm of frozen core was completely dominated by *Sphagnum*, *Picea* and ericaceous shrubs. There were no alternating patterns of peats in the core that might suggest any cyclic patterns of peat growth and deflation, or burning.

The vertical stratigraphy underlying topographicallydefined lakes also reflects successional history, because they preserve fossil deposits that illustrate succession in the vicinity of a lake. A high-elevation lake-bottom core was sampled in 1980 at 145m ASL at R Lake, southwest of central Aquatuk Lake (54°19'20"N, 84°33'30"W, McAndrews et al. 1982). Its 450-cm lake-bottom core was the first such sampled from the Ontario Hudson Bay Lowland, and its fossil strata parallel the temporal succession of vegetation inland from Cape Henrietta towards the Sutton Ridges, on which the R Lake is perched. The lake was first isolated from the Tyrrell Sea about 8200 yBP, at which time coastal indicators in the core included Plantago maritima, a coastal obligate, and Potamogeton. The initial upland vegetation was a sparse tundra dominated by Dryas, willows, grasses and sedges. With gradual uplift, shrub birch came to dominate the tundra, along with heaths and Shepherdia. Subsequent rebound reduced the influence of the cold sea, permitting spruce, tamarack and poplar forest by about 6500 yBP. The Sutton Ridge ceased to be an island around 5000 yBP, and a warmer climate at that time is indicated by the presence of Najas flexilis in the core, whose nearest modern occurrence is now south of the Lowland entirely (Riley 2003). The subsequent decrease in tree macrofossils, and increase in Sphagnum after 2500yBP, indicate both modern neoglacial cooling and widespread regional paludification.

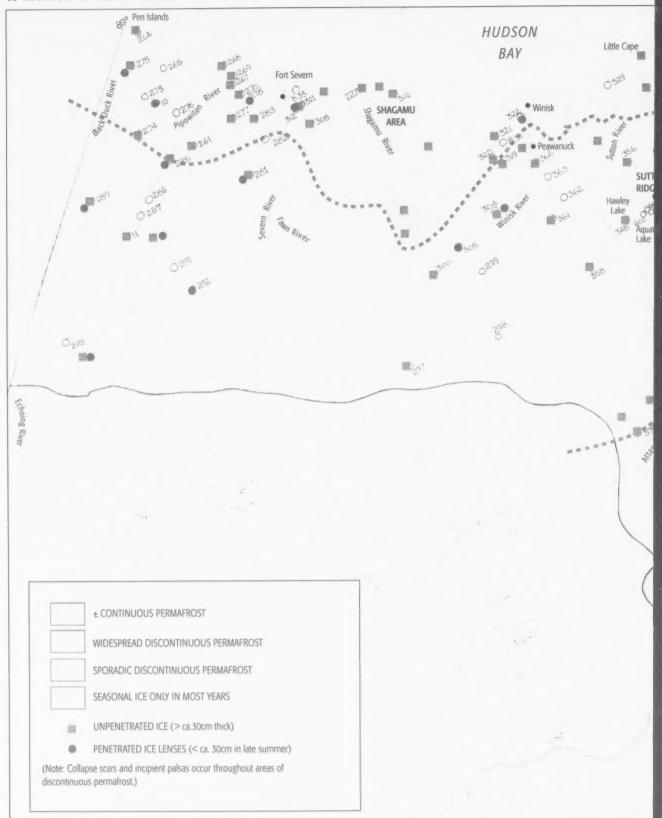
In 1990 Klinger and Short sampled a peat column from near Kinoje Lake (1996). The basal peat, 2.8-2.4m deep, was dated to 4110 yBP to 3400 yBP, and had the maximum values for grasses, sedges, willows, Artemesia, chenopods and Equisetum, analogous to modern coastal dominants. Large pieces of wood denoted the presence of tree cover at this time. The overlying strata, from 2.4-1.2m, was dated to 3400 to 2400 yBP, and had ericaceous shrubs, birch and alder taking over in dominance, and Sphagnum increasing to moderate levels. The peat strata above this, from 1.2m to surface, dated 2400 yBP to present, was dominated by the maximum values for Sphagnum and for ericaceous shrubs, and minimum values for herbs in general. Wood remains were absent. They also noted the dramatic increase in Sphagnum pollen after 2000 yBP and associated it with regional paludification. (Picea mariana pollen was consistent throughout the peat column. at 20-60%, and not indicative of local variation in tree cover.) Klinger and Short also surveyed the vegetation between Kinoje Lake and North Point, which paralleled in many ways, longitudinally, the stratigraphic succession that they had documented vertically (further discussed below).

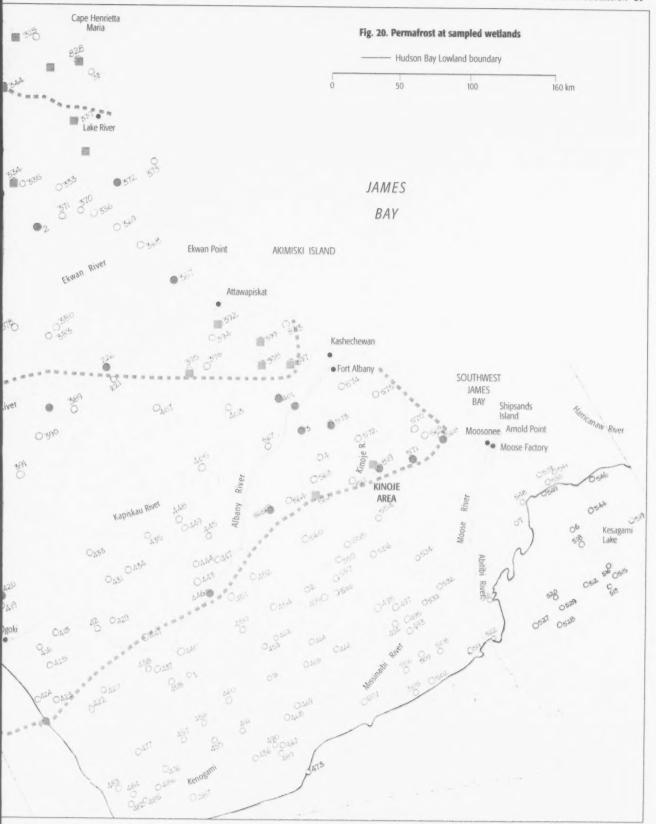
PERMAFROST

Permafrost is a powerful determinant of Lowland ecosystems, and underlays almost all vegetation types, even terrestrial sites, in the maritime tundra zone within 100km of Hudson Bay (Fig. 20; ±continuous permafrost, ±ecoregion OE), and discontinuously in an even larger area to the south. It is notable how few observations of permafrost have been assembled systematically, considering the broad extrapolations that may have to be made from such few data in a period of rapidly warming climate. To this end, descriptive terms such as palsa, peat plateau, thermokarst and tundra fens have particular value in surveys, so that the distribution of permafrost features are secondarily documented through its dependent vegetation. Figure 20 indicates the limits of more or less continuous permafrost, the extent of widespread but discontinuous permafrost, and the southern limit (approximate) of sporadic discontinuous permafrost. Generalized mapping is problematic, so point-observations are mapped, for: 1) impenetrable ice (resistant to stainless steel rods and therefore >ca. 30cm thick) and field observations of peat plateau; and 2) penetrable ice (penetrated by steel probes and thus found to be generally <30cm thick, ice lenses). In this regard, it is worth noting that collapse scars and other collapse features, and incipient palsas, occur throughout the zones of both widespread and discontinuous permafrost.

Along Hudson Bay, permafrost also occurs under beachridges, river levees and other terrestrial sites (Brown 1973). Ice can be reached quickly by digging in a beachridge in ecoregion 0E. Near the coast, many of the lower river levees consist of alternating strata of alluvia and ice, and are high and dry enough to support tree growth even though they are underlain by permafrost. Southward, these levees grade into ice-free conditions, in a north-to-south transition.

Permafrost dominates the peatlands between the rivers in ecoregion 0E, underlaying all systems. Southward, in ecoregion 1E, frozen peatland mounds (palsa) and ribs and islands are the most diagnostic permafrost features. Permafrost persists longest southward in ecoregion 2E in its deepest peats. The growth of raised *Sphagnum* hummocks (bog vegetation, especially *S. fuscum*) results in increased winter exposure and internal freezing, and the seasonal durability of that ice is extended by the superior insulating qualities of *Sphagnum* itself, which can be further consolidated by an increase in *Cladina* lichen cover (preferring higher, drier sites sites) which, in turn, cools the peat by raising albedo and furthering ice accumulation.









TOP. Ice-wedge polygons forming in shallow peat, Cape Henrietta Maria. BOTTOM. Circular ice-collapse scars, inland near Swan Rive, James Bay.

Upward flotation of such ice and consequent lowering of effective water levels also increases the insulating capacity of overlying peat (by drying it), preserving ice through hot summers, and encouraging *Cladina* growth.

Raised palsas occur in the threshold zone in which the growth and degradation of permafrost are in balance, most notably in ecoregion 1E. A study of palsas west of Hawley Lake by Railton and Sparling (1973) suggests that palsas are

growing and collapsing there on a continuous cycle of as little as 200 years, based on the climate at that time. They also note the role of *Cladina* and *Sphagnum* in raising albedo levels, resulting in a negative heat balance and thus preserving and expanding the contained ice-peat, raising it to an elevation limit beyond which rain and runoff remove the lichen cover and erode channels down the palsa slopes. The palsa can thus collapse as a result of changing surface-volume relationships, in that the ultimate height and exposure of a palsa initiates its own runoff and rain erosion, thus undermining its insulating active layer, followed by calving-off of palsa edges. The collapse scar reverts to graminoid bog or fen, or pool. Other collapse features include tipped trees and relict collapse pools. (Zoltai and Tarnocai (1971) drilled comparable Manitoba palsas.)

North of this, in ecoregion 0E, the palsas coalesce into palsa fields or peat plateaus, which cover broad plains at peat depths that can grow to 3m. and more. North of Hawley Lake, side-slope erosion off permafrost peat plateaus is no longer at play, and the thermal effects of albedo are more widespread, rather than at the scale of individual palsas. The effective difference in albedo between Cladina and Sphagnum surfaces may not be significant, given that wildfire, which often burns off lichen-rich peat plateaus, especially westward, does not result in significant collapse of peat plateaus (the lichen burns off, revealing the underlaying Sphagnum and other mosses). However, field observations also suggest that caribou grazing on lichen-rich peat plateaus (now much reduced from historic levels) may also remove lichen to the degree that darker heat-absorbing peats are revealed, leading to melt-out and to pools in slumped peat basins (site 261). Thus, the factors explaining collapse features can extend beyond climate, to biological factors.

The surface vegetation of permafrost peat plateau can be either bog-like or fen-like. The former is dominated by lichens, ericaceous shrubs, and either without trees or with black spruce, and is patterned in a hummock-hollow phasing; hummocks raised 1m or more above ambient landform, with lower interstitial drainways among them, organized in net patterns across bog-like peat plateaus. Elsewhere, however, peat plateau can be low-diversity graminoid fen dominated by *Scorpidium* spp., *Tomenthypnum* spp., *Carex rariflora* and other black mosses, on raised and unpatterned permafrost plains, with minor (if any) interstitial drains. These have uniform active layers of 20-35cm over frozen peat, and ice-wedge polygons can be found in

them in shallow-peat coastal sites. Fen peat plateaus are not a well documented peatland type, and have called, in Ontario, coastal fen by Brokx (1966) and Bates and Simkin (1969), and tundra fen by others.

Peat plateaus support another cyclic successional sequence, thermokarst lake systems. Large coalesced bog ponds and lakes (secondary water bodies) migrate across the peat plateau in the direction of prevailing winds (to the southeast), by a process of wave erosion of the permafrost downwind and deposition of eroded peat on the upwind sides. The thermokarst lake systems 90km west of Peawanuck are the most mature and extensive in the Ontario Lowland. In some areas the thermokarst lakes occupy more than 50% of the landbase, such as in the area between Shagamu Lake and the Winisk River. Climate warming will change the cycles and the periodicity of permafrost development and erosion in this and other permafrost systems and, in this regard, it it worth noting that, even though the present successional patterns are in balance with current climate and topography, they have evolved over millennia of climate change and have been stratigraphically superimposed on peatlands that were themselves the products of succession in other climates, such as the warmer climates and better drained conditions of the Hypsithermal Period, followed by a period that was, in turn, cooler and wetter than today.

Farther into the interior, the flat graminoid tundra fens show permafrost mounding, with low palsas forming within them, raising themselves as black moss mounds scattered through fens. Their development is associated with the deeper accumulations of peat towards the interior, and can be associated with the same permafrost processes that results in frozen mounds such as pingos elsewhere in the arctic. They appear to follow the same fen-to-bog succession, in this case, of fen-like peat plateau to bog-like peat plateau. At other sites, such as 60km south of Little Cape, they can also take the form of species depauperate, lichenrich, prostrate shrub tundra.

Most notably in the central Lowland, there is a developmental relationship between black moss pools (in both bogs and fens) and incipient permafrost, but the relationship is unclear, and likely involves water reflectance (albedo) and the insulating capacity of peat (Cowell et al. 1978). These pools can occur southward, also with very characteristic black moss signatures, and can host floating permafrost ice lenses. They may be permafrost collapse features in some places and permafrost growth features elsewhere, retaining

summer ice more efficiently than their environs. Such pool phases become more dominant, with larger and larger pools, towards the southern interior, where they can make up more than 20-30% of a fen complex. Areas between ponds can be shrub-rich fens or tamarack treed fens on raised ribs between pools. When ponds exceed 30-40% of a fen complex, in particular, the terrain takes on a lattice, or net, pattern of reticulate ponds and ribs, sometimes organized perpendicular to water flow (and slope) but most often less linearly organized. These terraced pool systems have been variously called polygon fens (misleadingly) by Bates and Simkin (1969) and, better, net fens by Zoltai (1988). To date there has been little systematic probing for ice under these net fens but ice does occur near the surface in the ribs and a net-like topography of ice may well frame a net fen, patterned in relation to the different insulation characteristics of the different wetland types. Pools also freeze, expand, crack, infill and re-freeze more readily than peat (rib) columns and can expand horizontally to exert lateral pressure against the shores of pools, further defining and raising the raised or hummock ribs that separate pools in lattice or net patterns (Sjörs 1963).

Overall, the occurrence of permafrost decreases southward, as both spatial and temporal discontinuities gradually disrupt it. Extensive frozen peat plateaus dominate areas within 90km of the coast, and can also occur as smaller peat plateaus and discrete palsa patterns south to the Attawapiskat River. Again southward, permafrost persists in its most southerly situations as discontinuous ice lenses in raised bog islands, in elevated ribs, and under bog or fen pools. These occurrences are set amongst non-permafrost peatland mosaics, as far south as the Albany River basin and beyond, where the permafrost thins out and persists as ice lenses as little as 30cm or less thick in late summer, and under a decreasing number of wetland types. However, even south of the Albany River, such as in the Kinoje Lake area, frost can persist continuously, down into underlaying substrates (Cowell et al. 1978), and in rare cold summers, ice can persist even farther south from one year to the next (Kirkconnell 1919).

Overall, James Bay has a cooling effect that pushes southward the occurrence (and increases the frequency) of impenetrable peat ice (Fig. 20), but it is also clear that ice lenses and other spatially discontinuous permafrost can also occur far into the interior of the Lowland and westward beyond it, in deep peats.

Location Sequences

Wetland patterns and successions occur at local and subregional scales, and can best be described at particular locations. Sub-regional descriptions are also helpful, for conceptualizing the general north-to-south variation in wetland formations across the Lowland (Fig. 21). Figure 21 percentages to the south are based on Northern Clay Belt calculations by Jeglum and Boissonneau (1977), and reference has also been made to the proportions reported by Ahti and Hepburn (1967). On Figure 21, there is probably an exaggeration of the proportion of non-wetland uplands, estimated at less than 10% for the Lowland as a whole (Ketcheson and Jeglum 1972; Sims et al. 1979). Permafrost is represented by shadings super-imposed on the major formations in which permafrost occurs in different parts of the Lowland, with peat plateau assuming a dominant role to the north.



SOUTHERN JAMES BAY

At south end of James Bay, topographic gradients are extremely shallow, and the extent and width of coastal marshes are continentally anomalous. Farthest offshore are *Zostera* and *Potamogeton* beds, and the initiation of intertidal *Puccinnellia* marsh is very gradual. High-tide lines, beachridges and spits mark the topographic limits that delineate the borders between wetland types and allow for sediment and organic accumulation in lower-energy supratidal environments (Glooschenko 1980). In general, the further succession towards interior wetlands is of two types.

First, in the vicinity of the Moose, Harricanaw, Partridge and Missisicabi Rivers, there are broad supratidal meadow marshes, and open shrub-rich freshwater marshes and thicket swamps, arrayed on slight microtopographic rises and dips parallel to the shores, above the wide intertidal marshes and mudflats (Riley and McKay 1980, Price et al. 1988). Above these, freshwater marsh grades into open and treed fen, with conifer swamp and levee broadleaf and conifer forest along the rivers into the interior. Between the rivers are some relatively elevated points, such as Halfway, Longridge, Piskwanish, North and Natatishee Points, where upland thicket and conifer forest can occur immediately above the tidal marshes. At Natatishee Point, for example, open bog occurs closer to the coast than elsewhere (at 80°01.5' W), due to the unusually high elevations close to

the coast and the duration of peat accumulation as a result. Behind these elevated areas, deeper peatland complexes dominate, both independently patterned (80°10'W) and stream-ordered (80°20'W). South of Natatishee Point, patterned bog and fen complexes dominate, close to the coast, as they also do on the raised moraine between the Moose and Albany systems, which extends to the coast at North Point and Longridge.

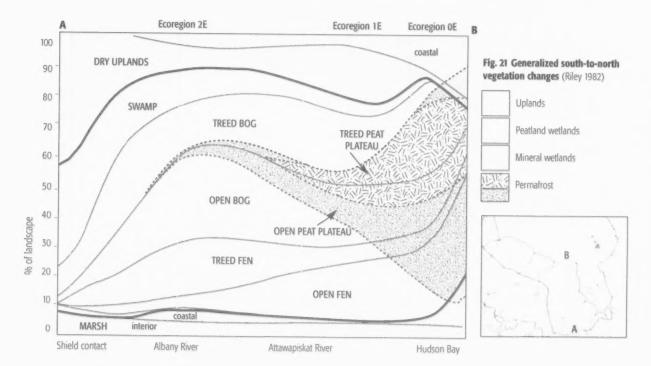
Second, the most homogeneous drainage system in the James Bay lowland is the Moose basin where, uninterrupted by beachridge terracing, hundreds of relatively parallel streams all drain to the Moose and Missinaibi Rivers. The slopes are sufficient to inhibit bog development and flat enough to result in an extraordinary uniformity of treed fen between streams, and of thin swamps and treed bogs along the streams. At some distance towards the interior, on these same slopes 40km west of Shipsands Island (51°20'N, 81°W), treed fen gives way to broad, open and relatively unpatterned bogs, but these are a small fraction of the overall fen landscape of the Moose basin.

A transect west from North Point to Kinoje (Kinosheo) Lake illustrates the intermediary sequences. At North Point, broad intertidal and supratidal marshes are segregated by upland beachridges from the higher freshwater marsh (see

also Klinger and Short 1996:175). Peat depths increase rapidly towards the interior, although thicket and conifer swamp still lines the margins of streams. Peat depths regularly exceed 30cm at about 2km from the coast (ibid.)

Fifteen kilometres west of North Point, the coastal treed fens (of the Moose basin type) begin to shift to open fen, such as at 51°27.5'N, 80°40'W, where the open fen is dominated by graminoids (80%) and pools (15%), with an initiation of open and treed bog islands (5%). Peat depth is ±0.7-0.8m. surface-water pH 5.3-5.5, and the overall tone of the wetlands is defined by the the brown moss Scorpidium scorpioides. Basal peat here is dated at 1090±70 yBP (Klinger et al. 1994).

Farther inland again, at 27km west of North Point (51°32'N. 80°58.5'W), open graminoid fen (65%) and pools (15%) still predominates, with open lowshrub fen (10%) and a distinct increase in open and treed bog islands (15%). Bog islands appear, by comparison with coastward sites, to be spreading and coalescing. At the same time, the pool phase of the fen pattern, a minor component coastward, begins to exceed 15%, and the pools begin to link together. The peat depth has increased to ±1.3-1.8m, surface-water to 5.4-5.6. and the basal peat here is dated at 1960±70 YBP (ibid.). The overall tone of the landscape is still set by the dominant brown moss Scorpidium scorpioides.





Expansive, flowing bog and fen complexes on the elevated Kinoje Lake plain.

KINOJE (KINOSHEO)

Another 40km west, 100km from James Bay, is the Kinoje Lake (Kinosheo Lake) area, where basal peats 2.9m deep are dated to 4110±80 YBP (ibid.). Kinoje and Carling lakes lay on the clay-mantled till plateau separating the Moose and Albany basins. They surround a major arcuate ridge that is the height of land between the Albany and Moose rivers, a subglacial deposit that was re-worked by storm and wave while it was an island in the Tyrrell Sea (Cowell and Riley 1979). The plateau has been emergent >4000 years above the sea, and has succeeded to a bog plain. Its dominant wetlands are treed bog (38% of area), open bog (22%), treed fen (15%) and open fen (10%), representing the mature successional stage of peatland development in the southern Lowland (Pala and Weischet 1982, Klinger and Short 1996). Bog islands, strings, pools and mounds are the major pattern elements. Kinoje is a preferred nesting location for the Canada Goose, and fen and bog pools with raised peat islands and mounds in them are preferred nesting sites (Raveling and Lumsden 1977). This is an area of sporadic permafrost, which can influence succession even this far south: in a study in August 1976, 19 of 52 sampled peatlands had frozen lenses, averaging 52cm deep, several of which could not be penetrated (Cowell et al. 1978).

The overall successional sequences in the Kinoje area have been outlined by Jeglum and Cowell (1982). Along flowing lakes and streams, where wetlands are influenced by seasonal water flow and the peats are shallow, one successional sequence occurs; shallow marsh, to meadow marsh, to thicket swamp, to conifer swamp. Alternatively, this sequence can succeed to treed bog, either with ice lenses or not. In areas where there are broad expanses of peatland not subject to waterlevel fluctuations but still in contact with mineral soil water, another sequence occurs; pool fen, to graminoid fen, to shrub fen, to tamarack or cedar treed fen. Pool fens can be underlain by ice lenses, so the sequence can also proceed, in the presence of ice, to bog, and in its absence, to conifer swamp. Finally, there is the bog sequence; pool bog, to Sphagnum or graminoid bog, to lowshrub bog, to treed lowshrub bog. Treed bog can also have ice lenses, elevating it above grade and

enhancing it as effectively the driest of peatland types in the area (*ibid*.). These sequences help explain vegetation patterns, but their interpretation in the field is always enhanced by looking at peat stratigraphy; another sequence is that a site can begin as a forest or swamp and, through paludification (and a flattening of topographic grade), become wetter (such as in fen types), and then drier again as raised bog develops. Calcareous, open, species-rich fens also occur at Kinoje, where there is groundwater discharge directly southeast from the main raised ridge, and direct local paludification as a result, as growing acid *Sphagnum* physically rolls out over and buries alkaline marl fen (Cowell and Riley 1979) (photo page 61).

ATTAWAPISKAT

The classic Lowland survey was conducted in 1957 by Hugo Sjörs, his wife Gunnel, and Erling Porsild in the vicinity of the confluence of the Muketei and Attawapiskat Rivers (Sjörs 1963). The following successional sequences are described in their work, based on the many "factors (types of drainage, trophic factors, corrosive oxidation, ice expansion pressure, frost upheaval, etc.) that are at work, forming and arranging the elements of the pattern" of a peatland. Among the ombrotrophic types, there are extensive areas of open bog, often patterned with pools and ribs. Bog also regularly occurs as elevated islands, which are usually clearly delimited and usually

with ice cores and often with permafrost black spruce islands. Almost all the bog systems are patterned with pools, much larger than their equivalent bog "hollow" pools coastward and often the dominant type in bog systems. Bog hollows still occur, but at finer scales in comparison with the very large ponds that can dominate these systems. Ice lenses in bog pools, followed by a buoyant uplift of frozen peat lenses as peat masses in open pools, have been observed (buoyant enough to support the author), and Sjörs also noted such floating ice lenses. He also noted how the process of ice expansion by pools reinforces the raisedrib vegetation that separates the pools. In deep bogs north of the Muketei, the pools expand into ponds and lakes, and the lakes show the same patterns of down-wind erosion (into the bog) and up-wind deposition that become, northward in permafrost peat plateaus, thermokarst systems (ibid, p.124-125).

Among minerotrophic types, fen is frequent in the form of seepage drains delivering bog waters to drainage outlets. They also occur, however, as flat fens within which are embedded miniature raised bog islands. As in the Moose River basin, the central Attawapiskat also has distinct basins with parallel streams and brooks flowing down very regular slopes, across very even substrates, and these basins are predominantly fen, often treed and rich in shrubs, including alder, birch and, even, cedar. However, between the parallel rivers and brooks, elevated bogs develop and can be miles long and very narrow, and raised (domed) in cross-section. Some of these areas of "extraordinary smooth topography with long-regular and very slight slopes" are also extensive string, or ribbed, fens, of astonishing regularity over large areas. In this regard, they are similar to the Echoing River fens of the westernmost Ontario Lowland, similarly distant from the modern coast and also occupying extraordinarily flat, sloped terrain laid down in similar proglacial depositional environments.

Other minerotrophic wetlands along the Attawapiskat include rich riparian (ice-scour) meadow marshes, and thickets and other swamps on islands and in small tributary drainways close to the river. These also include wetlands created by beaver. Of particular interest are the near-river fluvio-karst systems on the central Attawapiskat River (90km upstream), and their associated organo-karst sinkhole systems that pock the hinterland as much as 30km southward (Cowell and Riley 1979, Cowell 1983; first termed "cavernous limestones" by Bell in 1887). Wetland





Minerotrophic karst limestone sinkholes in acidic peatlands south of the Attawapiskat River.

features associated with these include disappearing lakes and streams, and drawdown sinkhole wetlands that surround the bedrock entry points into the karstic limestone bioherms. The drawdown sinkholes support various marshes, meadow marshes and ephemeral wetlands, reflecting their seasonal flood and dessication cycles. Drainage of the sinkholes is into the Attawapiskat River.

HAWLEY AND AQUATUK LAKES

Described above are studies in this area that focus on the development of palsas and peat plateaus (Sjörs 1961a, Railton and Sparling 1973). These features can be treeless or with scattered Picea mariana up to 10% cover, often tipped or tipping, or dwarfed as krummholz. Both palsa initiation and palsa collapse can occur at the same time in different

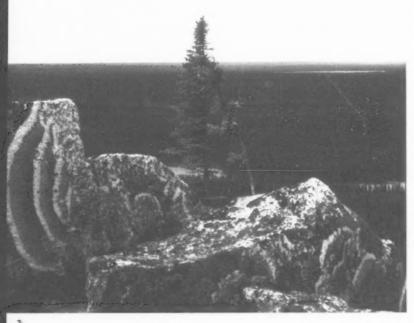
sites, as can be seen by the close proximity of collapse pools inside treed peat plateaus and newly rising mounds not yet of palsa dimensions. Peat filled basins often have marginal spruce zones while their deeper-peat interiors are occupied by raised, lichen-covered, permafrost palsas intersected by interstitial drainways and bog pools. Open bog is infrequent in the area, although unfrozen open bog vegetation can occur. Treed lowshrub bog is the most frequent bog type.

flanks around it are anomalous in the Lowland. with more contained "basin" wetlands than elsewhere, including, for example, scattered lakes. The lakes support mineral wetlands, with their shallow and deep waters dominated by aquatics like Potamogeton spp., Ranunculus aquatilis s.l., Utricularia vulgaris and Sparganium fluctuans. Minerotrophic wetlands are more frequent than ombrotrophic peatlands. High-pH fens with shallow peats over calcareous till are frequent (pH 7.1-8.3), often with highly diverse floristic assemblages. These fens can be the hollow phase of patterns dominated by treed bog hummocks. Other fens are patterned with Sphagnum fuscum rib separators, even though they are calcareous groundwater fens. Whether in fens or bogs, the raised bog islands that are common southward no longer occur, and their equivalent on the landscape are frozen, bog-like palsas and peat plateaus, with interstitial bog hollows among them that are variable in wetness and in composition.

The Sutton Ridge upland and the terrain on the



BOTTOM. Raised peat plateau with eroding sides, Aquatuk area.



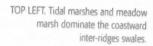


SHAGAMU

Typical of the maritime tundra along the Ontario Hudson Bay coast, the terrain surrounding the Shagamu River mouth is congested with dense swarms of parallel raised beachridges, terracing a coastal gradient that is steeper than anywhere on James Bay. The inter-ridge depressions are small, diverse wetlands. The lowest intertidal marshes are brackish clay flats where Puccinellia phryganodes, Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica, Stellaria humifusa, Plantago maritima and Ranunculus cymbalaria are predictable. Above these, in some places in a shifting gradient but in most places separated by beachridges, are supratidal meadow marshes dominated by Festuca rubra, Carex subspathacea, C. glareosa, C. mackenziei, Dupontia fisheri and Arctophila fulva, and also including most of the intertidal dominants at significant vestigial cover values. These proteinaceous meadows are grazed voraciously by waterfowl (Jefferies et al. 2006).







TOP RIGHT. Beachridges and inter-ridge wetlands all permafrost, mouth of Shagamu River

RIGHT. Species-rich tundra heath often has >30cm of frozen peat, Shagamu (Rhododendron lapponicum, Salix reticulata).



Inland, the next inter-ridge wetlands often include open water ponds bounded by supratidal and freshwater marsh. These breeding, moulting and flight ponds range from freshwater to brackish, and are variable in pH (7.7-(8.5)-9.4), salinity (0-(0.5)-1.6%) and conductivity (490-(1100)-2570µmhos)(n=7). More saline ponds are also documented (Sims et al. 1987). Dominants include many species: Myriophyllum sibiricum, Ranunculus aquatilis, R. hyperboreus, R. gmelinii, Carex aquatilis, Hippuris vulgaris, Potamogeton pusillus, P. pectinatus, P. filiformis, Zannichellia palustris, Callitriche hermaphroditica. (Similar sites are reported at the Pen Islands by Kershaw (1974), spread out there on the shallowest of gradients on the northwest coast.)

The inter-ridge ponds become less frequent away from the coast, as they fill with peat and shift to freshwater marsh, lowshrub meadows, and permafrost fens and bogs (plateaus and nets). Lowshrub thickets and meadows dominate the sheltered grades rising on to the beachridges, and these become rich in moss and lichen species, even more so than open meadows. Rising even higher, as exposure increases, the low shrubs shift to a more dwarf physiognomy and to arctic species of dwarf stature, grading into mossy wet tundra heath on the upper slopes and the exposed edges of ridges (Sims et al. 1987).

This maritime tundra is distinctive arctic vegetation, and elements of it often meet the peat-depth criterion for a peatland and often share floristic similarities with peatlands (Maycock 1974, Kershaw 1974). Ice is usually present in it, usually more prevalent than water in the summer, and it enjoys a positive overall water balance because of the fog zone along Hudson Bay, which strongly reduces summer sunshine and evapotranspiration. As a result, peaty turf accumulates. Tundra is not used here to describe a distinct wetland formation, but is noteworthy nonetheless because tundra and tundra peatlands grade into each other directly.

Tundra's place on the landscape is on beachridges or on their mossy margins, in areas of alluvial or lacustrine silts and in shallow peats. Tundra is a diverse association of prostrate arctic shrubs and diminutive arctic herb, grass and sedge species. Where there is moisture, it can be dominated by a matrix of mosses, such as on the slopes of beachridges and in moist areas at the bases of ridges, perhaps reflecting the distribution of late-spring snow beds. On the drier tops of beachridges, even where more than 5 to 10cm of peat have accumulated, lichens often dominate. Usually, the bright boreal lichens such as Cladina alpestris, C. rangiferina and C. mitis are not dominant, their place taken by greyer and more species-diverse lichen assemblages. On riparian levees and areas where silt is deposited annually, the prostrate shrubs themselves dominate, without strong moss or lichen cover. It is in this riparian tundra heath, often with shallow peats, that polygons or polygonal patterns of ice wedges occur. Ice-wedge polygons appear less frequently in areas where marine silts and clays, and deep peats, mantle the landscape.







Meadow marsh, Cicuta mackenzieana, Shagamu rivermouth, Hudson Bay.

Within the Hudson Bay Lowland ecozone there are distinct ecoregions of land and water that have characteristic ranges and patterns of climatic variables like temperature, precipitation and humidity, that are reflected in vegetation types, peat formation and other ecological processes, and associated biota. The Hudson Bay Lowland ecozone represents a globally anomalous landscape in that a higher proportion of the ecozone is dominated by wetlands than any other in North America, and its constituent ecoregions have characteristic wetland types, patterns and frequencies as a result (Zoltai 1979, Crins et al. 2009).

ECOREGION OE, Coastal Hudson Bay Lowland (Humid high subarctic (SHh) wetland region)

National SHh Wetland Characteristics: Broad areas of polygonal peat plateau, horizontal (immature and/or unpatterned) fen, shore fen and interridge fen. Initial stages of peat accumulation and palsa development are typical of immature fens, with deeper peats maturing to peat plateau. Salt marsh and coastal meadow marsh are common. A region of more or less continuous permafrost, with discontinuous permafrost southward.

A broad, exposed maritime zone of more or less continuous permafrost, which extends its influence into all wetland types as well as into coastal terrestrial sites such as tundraheath beachridges and river levees. Lichen-dominated PEAT PLATEAU and TREED BOG dominate. SHRUB MEADOW

MARSH and THICKET SWAMP are frequent at coastal and tundra sites. The relative extent of INTERTIDAL/ SUP-RATIDAL wetlands is less than along James Bay because of the steeper gradients. The coast's expansive displays of parallel beachridges, often extending far inland, support a great variety of inter-ridge MEADOW MARSH and MARSH types, grading into FEN systems towards the interior, and then developing into palsas and coalesced palsa fields (PEAT PLATEAU). PEAT PLATEAU also grades into uniformly raised, unpatterned, permafrost (tundra) FEN and BOG plains of considerable extent south and west of Cape Henrietta Maria, southeast of the Pen Islands, and between the Winisk and lower Severn Rivers. There are large PEAT PLATEAU areas, such as in the

latter area, where thermokarst lake systems erode downwind as shallow lakes and ponds, with distinct zones of peat deposition upwind. Ice-wedge polygon patterns occur in a range of shallow-peat wetland types. Raised and youthful coastal features, as yet unpaludified, support terrestrial vegetation. The breadth of tidal wetlands is greatest in the estuaries of rivers and around off-shore islands, such as around the Pen Islands.

ECOREGION 1E, Hudson Bay Lowland

(Low subarctic (SL) wetland region)

National SL Wetland Characteristics: Common wetlands are peat plateau to the north, and patterned or unpatterned fen, the latter generally without permafrost southward. Peat substrates are deeper than in areas northward. An area of transitional permafrost discontinuity. Southward, peat plateau shifts to patterned bog.

Characterized by a shallow topographic decline from the Shield northward to the east-west 'shoulder' that lies across the lowland (the Sutton Ridge uplands and associated till uplands, and the till uplands west of the Severn River). These areas support upland lichen woodland (much burned over in the west) as important landscape elements. These uplands are younger, and have shallower peat accumulations and more sloping terrain; OPEN FEN is characteristic of these areas, as well as the region as a whole. In the

coastward half of the ecoregion, PEAT PLATEAU and other permafrost-related features dominate, and extend into FEN systems. The coastal and estuarine systems on James Bay are considerably narrower north of Akimiski Island and occupy a smaller proportion of overall wetland types than on the coast to the south. A drier climatic regime in the western half of the ecoregion results in a higher proportion of fire-dependent and/or fire-related landscape features; LICHEN-RICH BOG and PEAT PLATEAU in which fire plays a role are widespread to the west, particularly along alluvia-related riparian PEAT PLATEAU. Major drainage channels created by the draining postglacial Lake Agassiz contain major sloping FEN systems in the west.

ECOREGION 2E, James Bay Lowland

(Humid high boreal (BHh) and mid-boreal (BMh) wetland region)

Northern Portion (ecodistrict 2E-1)

National BHh Wetland Characteristics: Open patterned bog, and ribbed and netted fen. Wooded peat plateau and palsa fields occur northward, with evident collapse features and initiation phases.

Dominated by patterned OPEN BOG (deeper peats) and FEN systems (shallower peats), reflecting the gentle topographic rise from the James Bay coast, and a strong correlation of peat depth, elevation and distance-from-coast. This correlation is expressed below about 65m ASL as relatively unpatterned and immature coastal OPEN and TREED FEN. The overall densities of trees in these systems are much lower than in similar subformations southward, such as in the Moose River basin. On higher terrain, in deeper peats, TREED and OPEN BOG dominates, and there is a high incidence of permafrost, expressed northward as PEAT PLAT-EAU, but more frequent southward as incipient palsa features (TREED and OPEN) and under raised TREED BOG islands in OPEN FEN and BOG systems (and with associated collapse features). A secondary element of provincial significance are limestone karst wetlands, with exaggerated seasonal variation of depth-to-water, occurring both south and north of the Attawapiskat River. Coastal and estuarine wetlands are similar in scope and proportions to those to the south. Broad unpatterned OPEN and TREED FEN closer to James Bay grades coastward into immature coastal FEN and inter-ridge SUPRATIDAL/INTERTIDAL MARSH and MEADOW MARSH.

Southern Portion (ecodistricts 2E-2,4)

National BMh Wetland Characteristics: Broad expanses of deep treed bog and fen, with sparse occurrence of more temperate thicket, broadleaf (floodplain), and conifer (cedar) swamp. Permafrost is generally absent and peat is often deeper than 4m. Sporadic permafrost occurs under raised bogs islands and fen/bog pools. Evidence of fen ('poor' fen) transitioning to bog is widespread. Black spruce swamp is common. Inland marsh is common, while coastal meadow marsh and thicket are similar to areas northward.

These southernmost wetlands support more temperate elements than elsewhere in the Lowland, such as DECIDU-OUS SWAMP and white cedar FEN and SWAMP, especially in its warmer interior. There remain some permafrost-related wetlands, such as under raised TREED BOG islands and FEN/BOG POOLS, where predictable discontinuous permafrost reaches its southern limits. The Moose River basin has well-drained, level slopes over broad expanses (draining off the Kinoje till moraine between the Albany and Moose watersheds) and these support the largest homogenous TREED FEN expanses, which grade into TREED BOG and CONIFER SWAMP along streams, and into forest along river levees. The Albany River basin is characterized by large patterned OPEN BOG and, to a lesser extent, OPEN FEN, with peat depths over 4m in interior areas south of 50°30'N and west of 83°W. Interior OPEN BOG is more seasonally droughty than elsewhere in the Lowland, supporting denser graminoid cover (especially sedge and cotton grass) than elsewhere (see photo page 20). Close to the Shield 'escarpment' are smaller wetlands perched between bedrock-controlled rises, especially in the east where the topographic rise is relatively steep. The same moraine between the Albany and Moose rises into a till plateau between the Kenogami and Missinaibi Rivers, with less wetland cover than in lower elevations on its flanks (Pala and Wischet 1982).

The widest Lowland expanses of coastal and estuarine wetlands occur along the southwest and southern James Bay coast, with broad and productive INTERTIDAL/SUPRATI-DAL areas as much as 10km wide in many places. MARSH, MEADOW MARSH, THICKET SWAMP and LOWSHRUB MEADOW MARSH are common, often extending inland for considerable distances, especially in the estuaries of major rivers. (At the southern transition to the adjacent Shield, especially away from the upland Pinnard Moraine. SWAMP and TREED BOG dominate many areas, transitional to the Abitibi Plains ecoregion (3E) to the south.

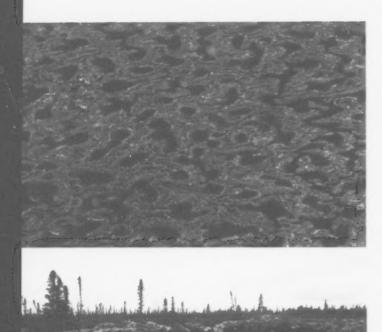
80 WETLANDS OF THE HUDSON BAY LOWLAND

Major Wetland Types

Peat Plateau, Open and Treed
Treed Bog
Open Shrub Bog
Open Graminoid and Sphagnum Bog
Bog Pool and Fen Pool
Treed Fen
Open Shrub Fen
Open Graminoid Fen
Swamp, Conifer and Broadleaf
Thicket Swamp
Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Freshwater
Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Coastal
Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Estuarine
Water, Shallow and Deep

See Appendices for additional detail.

Peatland terrain in the northcentral interior overlaying a former terrain of beachridges and inter-ridge swales



Peat Plateau, Open and Treed

Ecoregions OE, 1E. Average peat depth >3.5m (n=3). Continuous permafrost, with active layer averaging 36cm (n=4). (Data deficient due to difficulty penetrating permafrost-peat to substrates.)

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
TREED LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU Picea mariana - Ledum groenlandicum - Cladina	a 1E	С
TREED LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU Picea mariana - Ledum groenlandicum	1E	c
OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU Ledum - Cladina Rhododendron lapponicum	0E, 1E	c
- Ledum decumbens - Cladina	1E	C
OPEN LOW SHRUB PEAT PLATEAU Chamaedaphne calyculata - Cladina	0E	C

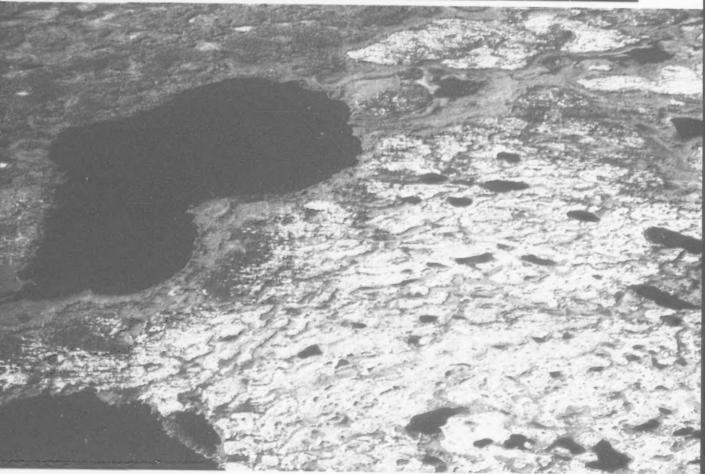
LEFT TOP. Net bog, in the northwest Lowland, composed of open graminoid bog (15%), bog pools (40%) and treed and open permafrost peat plateau islands and ribs, which separate the pools and terrace the wetland (35%).

LEFT. Eroding edges, mature palsa, Aquatuk Lake.

Permafrost peat plateau 100km from Hudson Bay, between Winisk and Severn rivers, dominated by thermokarst lakes slowly shifting downwind as waves erode permafrost peatshores leeward, coalescing when they meet.







TOP LEFT. Fens and lichen-rich palsa ridges, between beachridges, 10km from Hudson Bay, Shell Brook.

TOP RIGHT. Peat plateau drill site; permafrost 3.4m over frozen clay, 70km from Hudson Bay up Pipowitan Creek.

ABOVE. Permafrost peat plateau; lichen-rich in right foreground and recovering from fire in left background.



Treed Bog

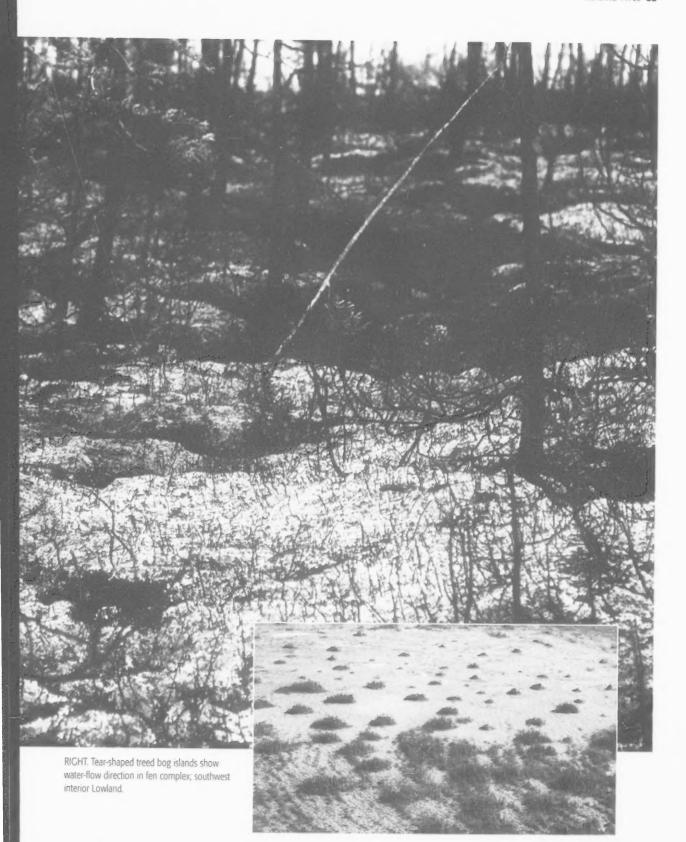
Ecoregions 1E, 2E. Average peat depth 1.5m in ecoregion 1E (n=6); >2.1m ecoregion 2E (n=18). Ecoregion 1E sites with discontinuous permafrost (ice lenses) (n=4) have average active layers 35cm.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
TREED SHRUB-RICH BOG		
Picea mariana - Chamaedaphne calyculata	2E	d, n
Picea mariana - Kalmia angustifolia	2E	d, n
TREED LOWSHRUB BOG		
Picea mariana	1E, 2E	n
Picea mariana - Chamaedaphne calyculata	1E, 2E	n
Picea mariana - Ledum groenlandicum	2E	n, d
TREED LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG		
Picea mariana - Cladina	1E, 2E	n
TREED GRAMINOID BOG		
Picea mariana - Carex oligosperma	2E	n

ABOVE. Raised treed bog often frames, terraces and edges bog pool complexes in the southwest interior.



Treed lichen-rich bog. Groundfire has burned off the lichen, leaving the *Sphagnum*; Kinoje area.







TOP. Southern interior plateau bog, comprised of open lichen-rich lowshrub bog (70%), bog lakes and pools (20%) and black spruce bog and swamp margins (10%).

BOTTOM. A. Boissonneau; R. Mussakowski, S. Pala, 1979 fieldcrew; open lowshrub bog in southern interior.

Open Shrub Bog

Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Average peat depth >1.8m in ecoregions 0E, 1E (n =11); >2.6m in ecoregion 2E (n =52). Includes sites with continuous permafrost, with discontinuous permafrost (ice lenses), or without any summer ice.

and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
OPEN SHRUB-RICH BOG Picea mariana (shrub) - Thuja occidentalis (shrub)	2E	n
OPEN LOWSHRUB BOG		
Chamaedaphne calyculata	OE, 1E, 2E	c, n
Chamaedaphne calyculata - Graminoids	2E	c, n
OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG		
Chamaedaphne calyculata - Cladina	OE ,1E, 2E	d, n
Ledum groenlandicum - Cladina	2E	d

Open Graminoid and Sphagnum Bog

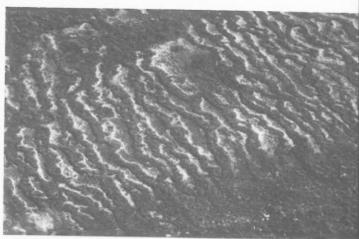
Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Average peat depth >1.9m in ecoregions 0E, 1E (n=16); >2.7m in ecoregion 2E (n=54). Includes sites with continuous permafrost, with discontinuous permafrost (ice lenses), or without any summer ice.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
OPEN GRAMINOID BOG		
Carex aquatilis	0	c, n
Carex limosa	0, 2E	c, n
Carex magellanica	1, 2E	n
Carex oligosperma	1, 2E	n
Carex rariflora	0	С
Eriophorum vaginatum	1, 2E	c, n
Rhynchospora alba	2E	n
Scheuchzeria palustria	1, 2E	n
Scirpus cespitosus	0, 1, 2E	c, n
OPEN SPHAGNUM BOG		
Sphagnum fuscum	2E	d,n
Sphagnum magellanicum	2E	d
Sphagnum nemoreum	2E	n

TOP. Ladder bog; graminoid bog lows terraced by lowshrub bog ribs; southern interior Lowland.

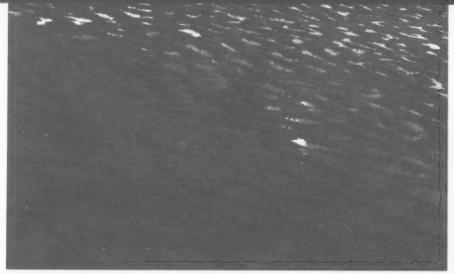
CENTRE. Open *Sphagnum* bog; low-pH bog with little or no shrub or graminoid cover; southern interior.

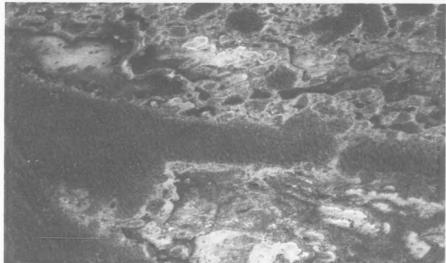
BELOW. Open graminoid bog, *Carex oligosperma* (85%) with lowshrub hummocks (15%), typical of the southern Lowland interior, near the confluence of Missinaibi and Rabbit rivers.











Bog Pool and Fen Pool

Open bog pools frequent in ecoregion 2E. Average peat depth >2.8m (n=5); with discontinuous permafrost (ice lenses) or without summer ice. Open fen pools frequent in ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Average peat depth >2.8m (n=13); includes sites with continuous permafrost, or discontinuous permafrost (ice lenses), or no summer ice.

Common Physiognomic Groups

and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
OPEN POOL BOG		
Cladopodiella fluitans	2E	d, n
Sphagnum magellanicum - Carex oligosperma	2E	n
Sphagnum lindbergii	1E	n
Sphagnum majus	1E, 2E	n
OPEN POOL FEN		
Eriophorum chamissonis	0E	d
Carex limosa	0E, 1E,2E	c, n
Menyanthes trifoliata	2E	d, n
Rhynchospora alba	2E	n
Scorpodium scorpioides	2E	d,n

Bog pools can dominate sites in the southwest interior, with raised open lowshrub bog separators.

TOP LEFT. Net fen 27km inland from Hudson Bay, west of the Winisk River, composed of open graminoid fen (50%), fen pools (35%) and treed permafrost peat plateau islands and ribs separating and terracing the wetland (15%).

BOTTOM LEFT. Lime-rich marl fen pools fed by groundwater flowing out of ridges, south Albany River basin, Carling Lake area.





TOP. Treed lowshrub fen as raised, parallel ribs in extensive fen; northcentral interior.

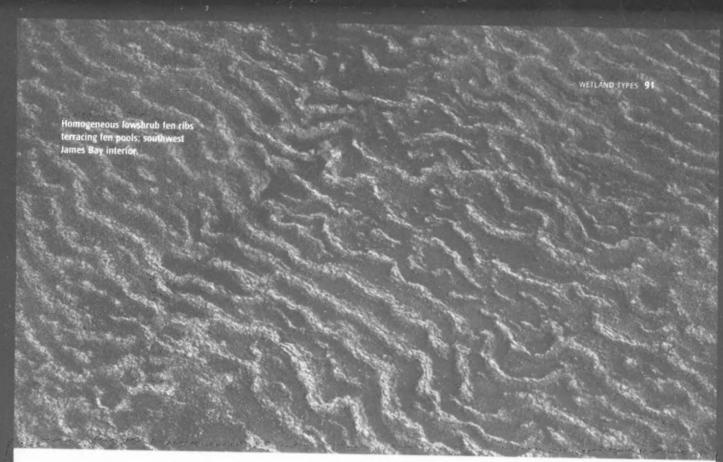
ABOVE. Tamarack fen dominates the flat gentle slopes of the Moose River basin, here a treed graminoid fen.

Treed Fen

Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Average peat depth 2.1m in ecoregions 0E, 1E (n=6); 2.3m in ecoregion 2E (n=19). No permafrost noted (n=25).

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
TREED SHRUB-RICH FEN		
Larix laricina - Betula pumila	0E, 2E	n
Larix laricina - Betula pumila		
- Chamaedaphne calyculata	1E, 2E	n
TREED LOWSHRUB FEN		
Larix laricina - Andromeda glaucophylla	2E	n
Larix laricina - Betula pumila	OE, 1E, 2E	n
Larix laricina - Salix candida	0E	n
Thuja occidentalis - Larix laricina		
- Betula pumila	2E	n
Thuja occidentalis - Myrica gale	2E	n
TREED GRAMINOID FEN		
Larix laricina - Carex chordorrhiza		
- Carex limosa	2E	n
Larix laricina - Carex lasiocarpa	2E	n
Larix Iaricina - Carex limosa		
- Scirpus hudsonianus	1E, 2E	n
Thuja occidentalis - Scirpus hudsonianus		
- Scirpus cespitosus	2E	n

The extent and homogeneity of the treed fens in the Moose River basin is unique in Canada.



Open Shrub Fen

Ecoregions OE, 1E, 2E. Average peat depth 1.4m in ecoregions OE, 1E (n=3); no summer ice, or with continuous permafrost (active layer 35cm).

Average peat depth >1.6m in ecoregion 2E (n=11); no permafrost noted.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
OPEN SHRUB-RICH FEN		
Larix laricina (shrub) - Betula pumila	1E	n
Salix pedicellaris	1E	n
OPEN LOWSHRUB FEN		
Andromeda glaucophylla	2E	n
Betula pumila	OE, 2E	n
Chamaedaphne calyculata	2E	n
Larix laricina (shrub) - Betula pumila	0E	c, n
Myrica gale	2E	n
Potentilla fruticosa	2E	n
OPEN DWARF-SHRUB FEN		
Arctostaphylos alpina	0E	C
Vaccinium uliginosum	OF	6

RIGHT TOP. Open lowshrub fen, Potentilla fruticosa, Kinoje Lake area.

RIGHT. Fen drain near Kinoje, south of Albany. Lowshrub fen ribs separate fen pools, surround bog islands.







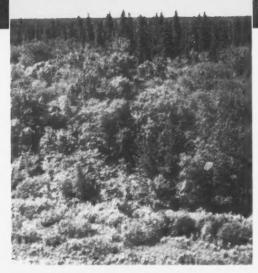
Ecoregions OE, 1E, 2E. Av. peat depth >1.3m in ecoregions OE, 1E (n=28); with no summer ice or with continuous permafrost (active layer av. 51cm, n=15). Average peat depth >1.8m in ecoregion 2E (n=33); no permafrost noted.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost	
OPEN GRAMINOID FEN			
Carex aquatilis	OE	c, n	
Carex chordorrhiza	0E, 1E, 2E	c, n	
Carex exilis	2E	n	
Carex lasiocarpa	2E	n	
Carex limosa	0E, 1E, 2E	c, n	
Carex livida	0E, 1E	n	
Carex saxatilis	OE	C	
Carex utriculata	2E	n	
Scirpus cespitosus	0E, 1E, 2E	c, n	
Scirpus hudsonianus	1E	n	

ABOVE. Open graminoid permafrost fen, Scorpidium turgescens-Carex aquatilis; Cape Henrietta Maria area.

RIGHT. Largest string fens in the Lowland, 240km from the coast on the Ontario-Manitoba border. Raised linear ribs of shrub fen run perpendicular to water flow, terracing a long flat gradient of graminoid fens and pools.

INSET. Open permafrost fen, with incipient ribbing and peat plateau islands; 13km ESE of Fort Severn.



TOP. Beachridge conifer forest grading into backridge conifer swamp; central James Bay coast.

ABOVE. Broadleaf elm swamp, Kenogami River.

Swamp, Conifer and Broadleaf

Ecoregions 1E, 2E. Average peat depth 0.8m in ecoregion 1E (n=2); no summer ice noted. Average peat depth 1.3m in ecoregion 2E (n=5); no permafrost noted or discontinuous, with ice lenses at average 43cm (n=2).

Ecoregion	Permafrost
2E	n
1E, 2E	d, n
2E	d
2E	n
1E, 2E	n
2E	n
	2E 1E, 2E 2E 2E

WETLAND TYPES 95 White spruce swamp (left), poplar swamp (right), behind riparian thickets; Attawapiskat rivermouth.

Thicket Swamp

Salix planifolia

Salix serissima

Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Average peat depths minor and/or unmeasured; summer ice noted in ecoregions 0E and 1E, with active layers 30cm.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
THICKET SWAMP		
Alnus crispa	1E	n
Alnus rugosa	1E, 2E	c,n
Comus stolonifera	2E	n
Myrica gale	2E	n
Salix cordata	2E	n
Salix exigua	2E	n
Salix glauca	2E	n
Salix pellita	1E, 2E	n

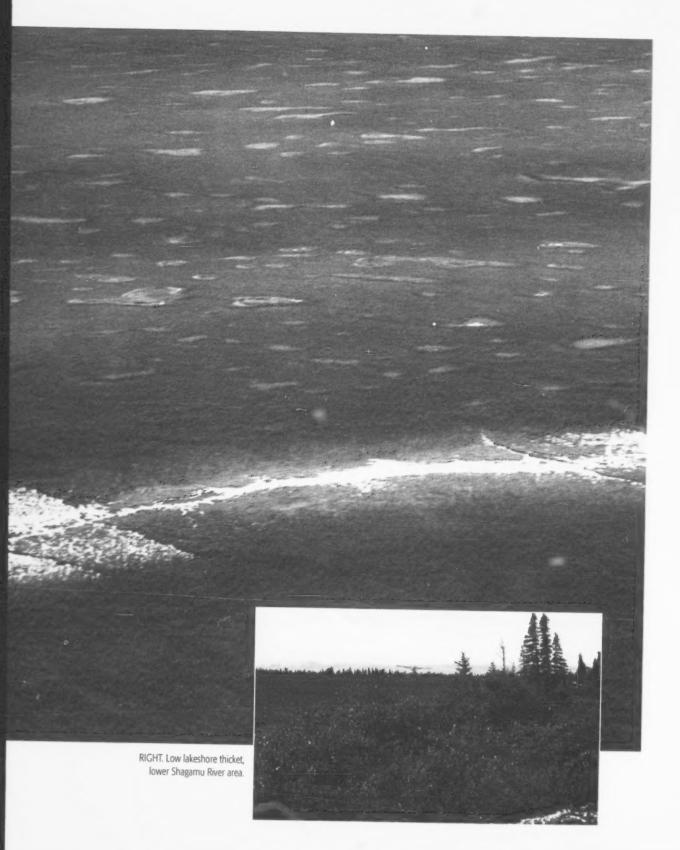
0E, 2E

2E



Low supratidal Salix thicket, Shagamu River.

Riparian thicket, shrub-rich meadow marsh and shallow marsh, as the result of beaver damming, here near Cape Henrietta Maria. (Note open peat plateau in background, pocked with collapse scars.)



Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Freshwater

Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Av. peat depth minor and/or unmeasured, but also up to an av. of 0.8m in ecoregions 0E, 1E (n=7) and 1.3m in ecoregion 2E (n=5). Summer ice noted in ecoregions 0E and 1E; active layers av. 28cm (n=5).





TOP. Meadow marsh typical of the flooded, ice-scoured banks of Lowland rivers; lower Shagamu River.

BOTTOM. Meadow marsh on lower Shagamu; lowshrub permafrost peat on left, and mineral meadow on right.

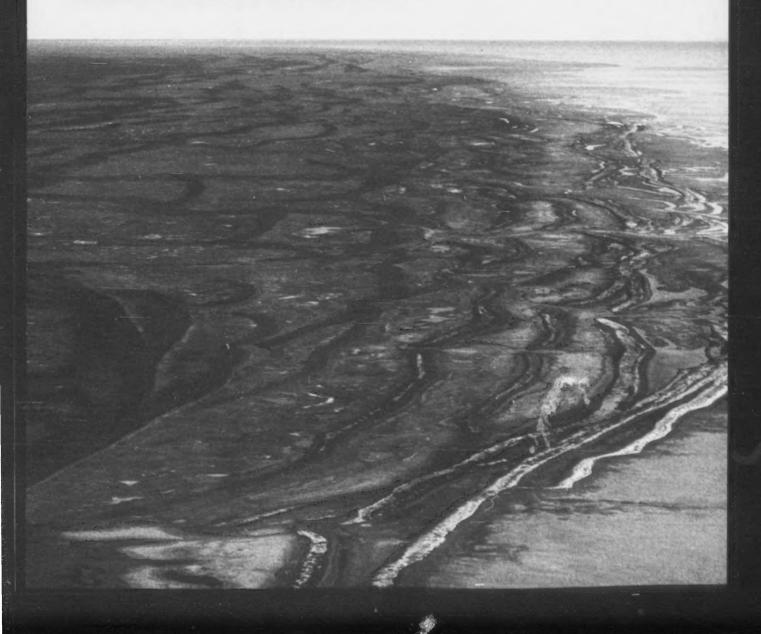
and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
SHALLOW MARSH		
Arctophila fulva	OE	C
Carex aquatilis	OE	C
Carex lasiocarpa	1E	n
Carex limosa	2E	n
Carex recta	2E	n
Carex retrorsa	2E	n
Carex utriculata	OE, 1E, 2E	n, d
Eleocharis smallii	1E, 2E	n
Equisetum fluviatile	OE	C
Hipuris vulgaris	0E, 1	c, n
Menyanthes trifoliata	OE, 2E	c, n
Petasites sagittatus	OE	C
Phragmites australis	2E	n
Potentilla palustris	2E	n
DEEP MARSH		
Scirpus acutus	2E	n
Typha latifolia	2E	n
MEADOW MARSH		
Alopecurus aequalis	2E	n
Calamagrostis canadensis	2E	n
Calamagrostis stricta	OE	C
Carex aquatilis	0E, 1E, 2E	c, d, n
Carex lenticularis	2E	n
Carex saxatilis	OE, 1E	c,n
Carex viridula	2E	n
Equisetum arvense	OE OE	C
Equisetum variegatum	1E	c n
Scirpus cyperinus	16	11
SHRUB-RICH MEADOW MARSH		
Salix - Myrica gale - Betula pumila	2E	n
LOWSHRUB MEADOW MARSH		
Arctostaphylos rubra	0E	C
Betula pumila	0E	C
Myrica gale	OE	C
Salix brachycarpa	0E	C
Salix candida	0E, 2E	c,n
Salix glauca	0E	C
Salix pellita	2E	n
Salix planifolia	OE	C
The second second		

Vaccinium uliginosum



LEFT. Potentilla palustris marsh, Shagamu rivermouth area.

BELOW. The succession inland from the coast, from open water, through intertidal and supratidal marsh, to freshwater marsh, is gradual where the terraced beachridges are well separated, such as along James Bay, 27km north of the Swan River.



Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Coastal

Ecoregions 0E, 1E, 2E. Peat depths minor and/or unmeasured; surface waters in evaporate pools as high as pH9.0 (n=3). No observations of summer made.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost	Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrost
SUPRATIDAL MEADOW MARSH			INTERTIDAL MARSH		
Calamagrostis stricta	2E	n	Carex glareosa	OE	n
Carex glareosa	0E, 2E	c, n	Carex mackenziei	0E, 2E	c, n
Carex paleacea	2E	n	Carex paleacea	1E, 2E	n
Deschampsia cespitosa	2E	n	Carex subspathacea	OE	С
Eleocharis smallii	2E	n	Eleocharis smallii	1E, 2E	n
Festuca rubra	0E, 2E	c, n	Hippuris tetraphylla	0E, 2E	c,n
Hippuris vulgaris	0E, 2E	c, n	Potamogeton filiformis		
Juncus balticus	0E, 2E	n	- Potamogeton pectinatus	2E	n
Menyanthes trifoliata	2E	n	Potentilla anserina var groenlandica	OE	C
Myriophyllum sibiricum	0E, 2E	c, n	Puccinellia phryganodes	0E, 1E, 2E	c, n
Petasites sagittatus	0E	n	Scirpus maritimus	2E	c, n
Potamogeton filiformis	2E	n	Senecio congestus	0E, 2E	c, n
Scirpus americanus	2E	n	Zannichellia palustris	2E	n
Scirpus rufus	1E, 2E	n			
Senecio congestus	1E, 2E	n	BELOW. At high tide, the broad coastal mai	rshlands along Ja	mes Bay, here
Zannichellia palustris	2E	n	north of the Albany River. Magnets for fee- waterfowl and shorebirds, almost entirely li	ding, breeding an	nd migrating

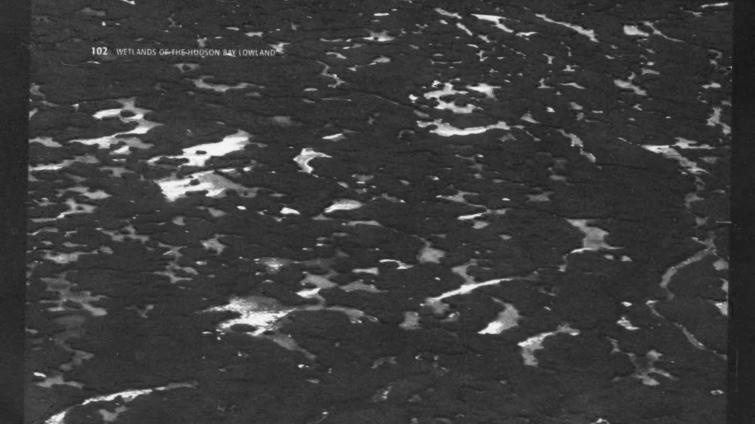




marshlands north of the Albany River.

BOTTOM. Marsh ragwort, Senecio congestus, can dominate marsh; here at Shagamu River mouth, Hudson Bay.

pannes and swards, and drains and ribs, here in the same James Bay



Marsh and Meadow Marsh, Estuarine

Ecoregions OE, 1E, 2E. Peat depths minor and/or unmeasured; no observations of summer ice.



TOP: Dense, nutrient-rich estuarine intertidal marsh, Senecio congestus - Eleocharis, at the mouth of the Moose River, at Shipsands Island.

ABOVE: Intertidal estuarine marsh at Little Cape - Sutton River.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafros
SUPRATIDAL MEADOW MARSH		
Anemone canadensis	2E	n
Agrostis gigantea	2E	n
Carex recta	2E	n
Carex limosa	2E	n
Equisetum variegatum	2E	n
Festuca rubra	2E	n
Juncus balticus	2E	n
Rhinanthus crista-galli	2E	n
NTERTIDAL MARSH		
Bidens hyperborea	2E	n
Carex paleacea	2E	n
Carex recta	2E	n
Equisetum fluviatile	2E	n
Hippuris vulgaris	2E	n
Juncus nodosus	2E	n
Lysimachia thyrsiflora	2E	n
Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica	2E	n
Puccinellia phryganodes	2E	n
Satittaria latifolia	2E	n
Scirpus americanus	2E	n
Scirpus validus	2E	n
Senecio congestus	2E	n



Ecoregions 0E,1E,2E. Peat depths minor and/or unmeasured; summer ice unmeasured.

Common Physiognomic Groups and Dominance Types	Ecoregion	Permafrosi
SHALLOW WATER		
Menyanthes trifoliata	2E	n
Myriophyllum sibiricum	OE	C
Potamogeton alpinus	1E	n
Potamogeton filiformis	0E, 2E	c, n
Potamogeton gramineus	2E	n
Potamogeton richardsonii	OE	C
Ranunculus aquatilis (s.l.)	0E 1E	cn
Ranunculus gmelinii	OE	C
DEEP WATER		
Potamogeton	1E, 2E	n
Nuphar	1E, 2E	n
Zostera (coastal offshore)	1E, 2E	n



Shallow water and marsh, around limestone karst sinkhole lake south of central Attawapiskat River.

Shallow water, Ranunculus aquatilis; inter-ridge pond; lower Shagamu River area.

Deep water Nuphar ponds (50%) in lowshrub bog (35%) with graminoid edges (10%); south interior.



Appendices

- A. Keys to Wetland Types
- B. Summary of Dominance Types, Distribution, Permafrost
- C. Catalogue of Wetland Site Types
- D. Cover Values and Surface-water pHs for Common Peatland Species
- E. Species Name Synonyms

Keys to Wetland Types

Adapted from Riley 1994a,b; after Zoltai et al. (1975), Jeglum et al. (1974), Jeglum and Boissonneau (1977) and Tarnocai (1979), and incorporating reviews of other sources (e.g., Ahti and Hepburn 1967, Maycock 1979, Riley and McKay 1980). The wetland site-type catalogue, App. C, is organized by these types.

FORMATION

BOG

SUBFORMATION

TREED

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP

LOWSHRUB

DOMINANCE TYPE

PICEA MARIANA-CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA

Site Type

Picea mariana 26 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 42 - Sphagnum fuscum 77

These units are hierarchical, different levels having varying utility for particular purposes. For example, formations/subformations have been mapped at airphoto and satellite-image scales, and physiognomic groups at airphoto and OBM scales, and for inventory, habitat and resource mapping. The order of normal use is subformation-physiognomic group-formation, e.g., TREED LOWSHRUB BOG. Dominance and site type are used at finer scales, based on quantitative survey. Terms can be abbreviated and complexed to describe particular cover percents or combinations/patterns, e.g., TREED²⁶ LOWSHRUB²⁶ BOG as T²⁶Is²⁶B, and a mix of types such as TIsB⁵⁰-OgB³⁰-OpB¹⁵ (abbreviations noted below).

A. KEY TO FORMATIONS

Clay plains, basins, depressions, slopes, seeps, drains, floodplains, river and lake shores, and seasonally or tidally flooded areas. Water table at, near or above surface for part of the year, saturated long enough to support features such as hydric or organic soils, or hydrophilic vegetation. Water levels can range from flooded spring or tidal conditions to summer drought conditions with water tables more than 50cm below ambient land or peat surface, or frozen as permafrost.

- 1a. Well-defined aquatic basins or shoreline zones often transitional to deep waters; inorganic or organic substrates. Vegetation submerged, floating or emergent, in standing water less than 2m deep, or on exposed substrate during water-drawdown periods, such as low tides or summer drought. Periodically or permanently flooded by silt- or nutrient-enriched lake or river waters. In sites exposed to wave or current, mineral soils normally dominate, whereas peat and/or muck may accumulate in less disturbed sites.
 - 2a. Waterbodies covered more than 75% with open water, usually less than 2m deep and associated with flowing or standing lakes, rivers or ponds; with sparse floating, submergent or emergent vegetation (less than 25% cover by emergents.) Sites withstanding water up to 2m are SHALLOW (sW) and those deeper than 2m are DEEP WATER (dW), and are transitional to aquatic site types (App. C) WATER (W)
 - 2b. Unsolidated open, flat or depressed surfaces dominated by emergent herbs, sedges, grasses, cattails or reeds (>25% cover), or low shrubs; interspersed in standing water or free-standing at low water levels. With occasional small pools and channels, and with exposed patches of mineral or organic soils during

(MARSH includes the drier, semi-terrestrial **MEADOW MARSH (MM)**, from which it also differs by the presence, normally, of standing water and less diverse, more open vegetation. Both MARSH and MEADOW MARSH can occur on organic or mineral substrates. The gradients between them can be transitional in tidal and littoral mineral-soil sites where water drawdown or incursion varies seasonally or tidally.)

- - 3a. Predominantly ombrotrophic (rain-derived) or weakly minerotrophic peatland, developed on poorly decomposed, acidic *Sphagnum* peat. Surface is isolated from mineral substrates and ground water, and the water 10cm below water table is usually pH 5.2, higher where dry by drought, and significantly lower than pH <4.4 where sites are strictly ombrotrophic (and Ca levels <2ppm). Low diversity of plants and insects.</p>
 - 4a. Level, gradually raised, domed or sloping surfaces normally with a hummock-hollow topography, usually with continuous moss cover dominated by Sphagnum (e.g., S. fuscum in hummocks, with sparse graminoids, ericaceous shrubs and black spruce (or tamarack in transitional sites), or with wet blanket coverage by other Sphagnum spp., accompanied by graminoid ground cover and mostly ericaceous shrubs. With or without discontinuous permafrost or seasonal ice lenses; regularly with incipient palsa forming north of about 51°N.
 - 4b Erratic topography of perennial permafrost peat eruptions (palsa) or smoother raised permafrost terrain of coalesced palsas (peat plateau) usually rising more than 1m above ambient ground level; with more or less continuous frozen peat cores, and usually patterned with interstitial drainways (deep in bog types, shallow or absent in fen types). Surface vegetation can be bog-like (lichens, ericaceous shrubs, without trees or with *Picea mariana* up to 25% cover) or fen-like (*Scorpidium* spp., *Carex rariflora* types on raised and unpatterned permafrost plains). PEAT PLATEAU can support thermokarst lake systems, across which lakes and ponds erode downwind, with distinct zones of peat erosion and deposition.)
 - 3b. Predominantly minerotrophic wetland, developed on woody, graminoid or brown-moss peat or, if with abundant *Sphagnum* at the surface, not usually underlain by a strata of *Sphagnum* peat >30cm thick. Enriched by lateral or groundwater inputs of mineral-soil waters. High diversity of plants and insects.
 - 5a. Wooded, with more than 25% cover by trees or shrubs >135cm. Usually with hummocky surfaces broken by wet interstitial hollows, or relatively flat but with spring-flooded pools. Substrates include mixtures of transported mineral, organic sediments, or in situ peat (woody or with Sphagnum at surface). May be seasonally flooded or flooded by beaver, or with interstitial hollows of standing water and hummocks associated with deadfall or the bases of trees or shrubs. (To the south, SWAMP can be distinguished from high-density TREED BOG by its location on the wetter water margins of peatlands, or by the occurrence of understorey Alnus rugosa or Salix spp, indicating minerotrophy. In SWAMP there can also be surficial Sphagnum peat less than 30cm thick, and more vigorous growth of trees, often those >10cm DBH more than 25% cover. Northern river and stream levees can be formed of alternating alluvia of peat and ice, and be transitional between forest and SWAMP.)

5b. More sparsely wooded or open, usually with level or depressional surfaces except for low shrub hummocks in open sites, and low root or stump hummocks in treed sites, and with or without surface water in the interstitial hollows dominated by grasses and/or mostly non-ericaceous shrubs. Tree cover may reach 25% (Larix laricina, Thuja occidentialis) but is usually >10m in height and with an understorey of low shrubs and/or graminoids rather than taller alder or willow. In untreed sites, pools of open water or drainage tracks are often present. Surface patterns include parallel ribbing, netted pools and raised islands (often BOG), and linear drainways and regularly dispersed pools. Various Sphagnum spp. present where water pH is between 5.2 and 6.0, but more neutral sites (pH >5.5) support brown mosses (Campylium stellatum, Aulocomnium palustre, Drepanocladus revolvens, Tomenthypnum nitens, Scorpidium scorpioides, Palludella squarrosa, Calliergon giganteum). In marl sites, surface water pHs are often in excess of 7.0.

FEN may be weakly minerotrophic, with few indicator species present, and *Sphagnum* and *Picea mariana* dominating, particularly in hummock phases. Such sites are successionally transitional to BOG and can be extensive. They can be termed **POOR FEN (PF)**. This transition is developmental rather than physiognomic, and is not a formation of equivalent status to others. Such sites are here termed FEN, based on indicator species at even low frequencies (App. D). Interpretation of POOR FEN based on airphotos is unreliable.

B. KEY TO SUBFORMATIONS

BOG, FEN, PEAT PLATEAU (PALSA)

- 1a. Cover by individual trees taller than 135cm less than 10% (Note: Percent tree-cover can noted as superscript, e.g., 8% as O8)
- 1b. Cover by individual trees taller than 135cm more than 10% (rarely 40%); trees >10cm DBH <10%.

 TREED (T*)

 - 2b. Cover by trees taller than 135cm between 15% to 25%, occasionally more than 25%

 Medium-density TREED (T(md))
 - 2c. Cover by trees taller than 135cm more than 25%; BOG or FEN species such as Ledum groenlandicum dominate in the understorey, and SWAMP species such as alder or willows not present. Transitional to SWAMP, and unreliably distinguished on airphotos.
 High-density TREED (T(hd))

MARSH, MEADOW MARSH, WATER

- 1b. Sites subject to tides and the freshwater influence of major rivers. ESTUARINE (E)
- 1c. Interior sites beyond the marine influence of Hudson and James bays. FRESHWATER (FW)

C. KEY TO PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUPS

BOG, FEN, PEAT PLATEAU (PALSA)

Where more than one physiognomy applies, the shrub layer takes precedence over the graminoid/herb and *Sphagnum*-lichen layers; the graminoid/herb layer takes precedence over *Sphagnum*-lichen; and *Sphagnum* and lichen is used where neither shrub nor graminoid/herb layer meets the cover levels below.

1a. Low or dwarf shrubs less than 135cm tall more than 25% cover, or tall shrubs 10% to 30% (rarely to 40%) cover. Where the height of shrub cover is indiscernible from airphotos or when field data are otherwise unavailable, a generic notation SHRUB(sh) can be used.

- 2c. Shrubs less than 20cm tall more than 10% cover. On northern PEAT PLATEAU, PALSA, BOG and FEN, these represent extremes of climatic exposure and/or nutrient ombrotrophy. Semi-shrubs are not covered in shrub cover values.
 Dwarf-Shrub (ds)

such as Vaccinium oxycoccus, Rubus pubescens, R. acaulis and R. chamaemorus are not included in shrub cover values. Lowshrub (ls)

- 2d. Most conspicuous visual impact is lichen cover (Cladina spp.) over 45% to 50% cover. . . Lichen-rich (lr)
- 1b. Shrubs not present or present at cover values less than those indicated above.
 - 3a Firm peatland above water most of the year.
 - 4a. Conspicuous graminoid layer (sedges, grasses, reeds) more than (8% to) 10% cover; graminoid cover exceeds shrub cover percentage. Characteristic species are Carex aquatilis (B,F), C. chordorrhiza (F), C. exilis (F), C. lasiocarpa (F), C. limosa (B,F), C. livida (F), C. oligosperma (B), C. magellanica (B), C. rariflora (B), Eriophorum vaginatum (B), Scirpus cespitosus (F,B), and S. hudsonianus (F). Included in this graminoid layer are the peatland forbs and semi-shrubs (above).... Graminoid (g)
 - **4b.** Sphagnum mosses dominant at surface; shrubs, herbs and graminoids less than 10% cover.

 Sphagnum (sp)

MARSH (and WATER)

- - 2a. Shrubs over 135cm tall 10% to 30% cover, but also normally with sedges, grasses, reeds or cattails present. Often the more or less unconsolidated edge of THICKET SWAMP or MARSH. Shrubs include Salix spp, Myrica gale, Betula pumila. Shrub-rich (sr)
 - 2b. Shrubs shorter than 135cm (including dwarf and semi-shrubs) more than 10% cover and having the main visual impact, although sites may also have a graminoid component. Shrubs include those above, and Arctostaphylos rubra, Salix brachycarpa, S. candida, S. glauca, S. planifolia, Vaccinium uliginosum.

 Lowshrub (ls)

The dominant species above are typical of interior FRESHWATER MARSH. MARSH and MEADOW MARSH vary significantly in dominance closer to the maritime coast, where they cover extensive areas as either COASTAL or ESTUARINE MARSH (Riley and McKay 1980; Glooschenko 1980a,b).

- 1a. MARSH subject to spring high tides and other exceptional tides ,and consequent marine icescouring; grading away from coastal areas into FRESHWATER MARSH and MEADOWMARSH; often broken with pools with elevated salinity and salt-reliant plants (halopytes).
 Supratidal (sup)
 - Dominant species of COASTAL Supratidal MEADOW MARSH include Calamagrostis stricta, Carex glareosa, C. paleacea, Deschampsia cespitosa, Eleocharis smallii, Festuca rubra, Hippuris vulgaris, Juncus balticus, Myriophyllum sibiricum, Potamogeton filiformis, Scirpus americanus, S. rufus, Senecio congestus and Zannichellia palustris.
 - Dominant species of ESTUARINE Supratidal MEADOW MARSH include Anemone canadensis, Carex recta, C. limosa, Equisetum variegatum, Festuca rubra, Juncus balticus and Rhinanthus crista-galli.
- 1b. MARSH subject to regular tidal influence; grading into Supertidal MEADOW MARSH but usually with emergent beach-ridge deposits or deposits of tidal debris forming some upper boundary between 'regular' vs. 'exceptional' tidal activity; halophytic plants dominating, except in ESTUARINE sites ameliorated by freshwater inputs.

Dominant species of COASTAL Intertidal MARSH include Carex mackenziei, C. paleacea, C. subspathacea, Eleocharis smallii, Hippuris tetraphylla, Potemogeton filiformis and P. pectinatus, Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica, Puccinellia phryganodes, Scirpus maritimus, Senecio congestus and Zannichellia palustris. Halophytes such as Plantago maritima and Salicornia europaea are frequent associates.

Dominant species of ESTUARINE Intertidal MARSH include Bidens hyperborea, Carex paleacea, Equisetum fluviatile, Hippuris vulgaris, Juncus nodosus, Lysimachia thyrsiflora, Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica, Puccinellia phryganodes, Sagittaria latifolia, Scirpus americanus, S. rufus, S. validus and Senecio congestus.

SWAMP

- 1a. Tree species dominant.
 - 2a. Conifers dominant (Picea mariana, Larix laricina, Thuja occidentalis). Conifer (c)
 Conifer SWAMP on peatland varies considerably in nutrient status and dominance types. In the merchantable SWAMP of the southernmost HBL, nutrient-related classifications would be very similar to the Forest Ecosystem Operational Groups (OGs) developed for the Northern Clay Belt (Jones et al. 1983); OG11, Picea mariana—Ledum groenlandicum; OG12, Picea mariana—Alnus rugosa—herb-poor; OG13, Picea mariana (Larix laricina, Thuja occidentalis)—Alnus rugosa—herb-rich.)
 - 2b. Broadleaf deciduous trees dominant (Fraxinus nigra, Populus balsamifera, Ulmus americana)... Broadleaf (b)
 - 2c. Mixed conifer and broadleaf trees dominant Mixed (m)
- 1b. Tree species less than 25% cover and shrubs over 135cm tall more than 25% (Alnus and Salix spp., Betula pumila, Cornus stolonifera). Grades into shrub-rich MEADOW MARSH Thicket (t)

Appendix B

Summary of Dominance Types, Distribution, Permafrost

TMATION IBFORMATION IBFORMATION C = continuous PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE To = not noted FORMATION SUBFORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE			Permafrost c = continuous d = discontinuous n = not noted		
PEAT PLATEAU	OE, 1E	c	OPEN LOWSHRUB BOG		
TREED			CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA	0E,1E,2	E c,n
TREED LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU	1		CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA -		
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM -	1E	C	GRAMINOIDS	2E	c,n
CLADINA			OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG		
TREED LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU			CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA - CLADINA	0E,1E,2	2E d,n
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM	1E	C	LEDUM GROENLANDICUM - CLADINA	2E	d
OPEN			OPEN GRAMINOID BOG		
OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU			CAREX AQUATILIS	OE	c,n
LEDUM - CLADINA	0E,1E	C	CAREX LIMOSA	0E,28	c,n
RHODODENDRON LAPPONICUM -	1E	c	CAREX MAGELLANICA	1E,26	n
LEDUM DECUMBENS - CLADINA			CAREX OLIGOSPERMA	1E,28	n
OPEN LOW SHRUB PEAT PLATEAU			CAREX RARIFLORA	0	C
CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA - CLADINA	0E	С	ERIOPHORUM VAGINATUM	1E,28	E c,n
			RHYNCHOSPORA ALBA	2E	n
BOG	0E.1E.2E	ada.	SCHEUCHZERIA PALUSTRIS	1E,28	n
	UE,1E,ZE	c,d,n	SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS	0E,1E,	2E c,n
TREED			OPEN SPHAGNUM BOG		
TREED SHRUB-RICH BOG			SPHAGNUM FUSCUM	2E	d,n
PICEA MARIANA - CHAMAEDAPHNE	2E	d,n	SPHAGNUM MAGELLANICUM	2E	d
CALYCULATA			SPHAGNUM NEMOREUM	2E	n
PICEA MARIANA - KALMIA ANGUSTIFOLIA	2E	d,n	OPEN POOL BOG		
TREED LOWSHRUB BOG			CLADOPODIELLA FLUITANS	2E	d,n
PICEA MARIANA	1E,2E	n	SPHAGNUM MAGELLANICUM -	2E	n
PICEA MARIANA - CHAMAEDAPHNE	1E,2E	n	CAREX OLIGOSPERMA		
CALYCULATA			SPHAGNUM LINDBERGII	1E	n
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM	2E	n,d	SPHAGNUM MAJUS	1E,2	E n
TREED LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG					
PICEA MARIANA - CLADINA	1E,2E	n	FEN	AF 1F	or adm
TREED GRAMINOID BOG			PEN	0E,1E,	2E c,d,n
PICEA MARIANA - CAREX OLIGOSPERMA	2E	n	TREED		
OPEN			TREED SHRUB-RICH FEN		
OPEN SHRUB-RICH BOG			LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA	0E,2	
PICEA MARIANA - THUJA OCCIDENTALIS (shrub)	2E	n	LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA - CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA	1E,2	E n

SUBFORMATION SUBFORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Ecoregion C = continuous C = continuous D = discontinuous D = not noted D = not noted FORMATION SUBFORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE		PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP		c = continuous d = discontinuou n = not noted	
TREED LOWSHRUB FEN			SWAMP	0E,1E,2	E c.d.n
LARIX LARICINA	2E	n	CONIFER SWAMP		- dahu
- ANDROMEDA GLAUCOPHYLLA			LARIX LARICINA	25	
LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA	0E,1E,2E	n	PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM	2E	n
LARIX LARICINA - SALIX CANDIDA	OE	n	PICEA GLAUCA - ABIES BALSAMEA		d,n
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - LARIX LARICINA -	2E	n	THUJA OCCIDENTALIS	2E	d
BETULA PUMILA			BROADLEAF SWAMP	2E	n
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - MYRICA GALE	2E	n	POPULUS BALSAMIFERA	1505	
TREED GRAMINOID FEN			ULMUS AMERICANA - FRAXINUS NIGRA	1E,2E	n
LARIX LARICINA - CAREX CHORDORRHIZA - CAREX LIMOSA	2E	n	THICKET SWAMP	2E	n
LARIX LARICINA - CAREX LASIOCARPA	2E	n	ALNUS CRISPA	1E	n
LARIX LARICINA - CAREX LIMOSA -	1E,2E	n	ALNUS RUGOSA	1E,2E	c,n
SCIRPUS HUDSONIANUS			CORNUS STOLONIFERA	2E	n
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - SCIRPUS	2E	n	MYRICA GALE	2E	n
HUDSONIAUS - SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS			SALIX CORDATA	2E	n
OPEN			SALIX EXIGUA	2E	n
OPEN SHRUB-RICH FEN			SALIX GLAUCA	2E	n
LARIX LARICINA (shrub) - BETULA PUMILA	18	n	SALIX PELLITA	1E,2E	n
SALIX PEDICELLARIS	1E	n	SALIX PLANIFOLIA	0E,2E	n
OPEN LOWSHRUB FEN			SALIX SERISSIMA	2E	n
ANDROMEDA GLAUCOPHYLLA	2E	n			
BETULA PUMILA	0E,2E	n	MARSH	0E,1E,2	c.n.d
CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA	2E	n	FRESHWATER		
LARIX LARICINA (shrub) - BETULA PUMILA	0E	c,n	SHALLOW MARSH		
MYRICA GALE	2E	n	ARCTOPHILA FULVA	0E	
POTENTILLA FRUTICOSA	2E	n	CAREX AQUATILIS	0E	C
OPEN DWARF-SHRUB FEN			CAREX LASIOCARPA	1E	C
ARCTOSTAPHYLOS ALPINA	OE	С	CAREX LIMOSA	2E	n
VACCINIUM ULIGINOSUM	OE	С	CAREX RECTA	2E	
OPEN GRAMINOID FEN			CAREX RETRORSA	2E	n
CAREX AQUATILIS	OE	c,n	CAREX UTRICULATA	2E	n
CAREX CHORDORRHIZA	0E,1E,2E	c,n	ELEOCHARIS SMALLII	1E.2E	n,d
CAREX EXILIS	2E	n	EQUISETUM FLUVIATILE	OE	n c
CAREX LASIOCARPA	2E'	ก	HIPPURIS VULGARIS	OE,1E	
CAREX LIMOSA	0E,1E,2E	c,n	MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA	0E,2E	c,n c,n
CAREX LIVIDA	0E,1E	n	PETASITES SAGITTATUS	OE,ZE	C,(1
CAREX SAXATILIS	OE 30	C	PHRAGMITES AUSTRALIS	2E	
CAREX UTRICULATA	2E	n	POTENTILLA PALUSTRIS	2E	n
SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS	0E,1E,2E	c,n	DEEP MARSH	26	n
SCIRPUS HUDSONIANUS	1E	n	SCIRPUS ACUTUS	2E	n
OPEN POOL FEN			TYPHA LATIFOLIA	2E	n
ERIOPHORUM CHAMISSONIS	0E	d	MEADOW MARSH	26	11
CAREX LIMOSA	0E,1E,2E	c,n	ALOPECURUS AEQUALIS	2E	n
MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA	2E	d,n	CALAMAGROSTIS CANADENSIS	2E	n
RYNCHOSPORA ALBA	2E	n	CALAMAGROSTIS STRICTA	OE	C
SCORPIDIUM SCORPIOIDES	2E	d,n	CAREX AQUATILIS	0E,1E,2E	c,d,n
			CAREX LENTICULARIS	2E	n
			CAREX SAXATILIS	0E.1E	c,n

2E 0E 0E 1E	n c c	ELEOCHARIS SMALLII FESTUCA RUBRA HIPPURIS VULGARIS	2E	
OE 1E	С			n
1E		HIPPURIS VULGARIS	0E,2E	c,n
	n		0E,2E	c,n
2E		JUNCUS BALTICUS	OE.2E	n
2E		MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA	2E	n
	n	MYRIOPHYLLUM SIBIRICUM	0E,2E	c,n
		PETASITES SAGITTATUS	OE	n
		POTAMOGETON FILIFORMIS	2E	n
0E	C	SCIRPUS AMERICANUS	2E	n
0E	C	SCIRPUS RUFUS	1E, 2E	n
OE	С	SENECIO CONGESTUS	1E, 2E	n
OE,2E	c,n	ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS	0E,2E	n
OE	C	INTERTIDAL MARSH		
2E	n	CAREX GLAREOSA	0E	c
0E	C	CAREX MACKENZIEI	0E.2E	c.n
		CAREX PALEACEA	1E.2E	n
		CAREX SUBSPATHACEA	OE	С
		ELEOCHARIS SMALLII	1E.2E	n
2E	n	HIPPURIS TETRAPHYLLA		c,n
				n
		POTAMOGETON PECTINATUS		
		POTENTILLA ANSERINA	0E	c
2E				
2E			0E.1E.2E	c,n
2E		SCIRPUS MARITIMUS	2E	c,n
2E		SENECIO CONGESTUS	0E,2E	c,n
		ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS	2E	n
2E	n			
2E	n			
2E		WATER		
2E		SHALLOW WATER		
2E			2E	n
2E			OE	C
2E			1E	n
2E	n		0E.2E	c,n
				n
2E	n		OE	C
				c,n
				C
			1525	
				n
				n
		ZUSTERA (Codstal offshore)	11,21	n
2E	n			
	0E 0E 0E 0E 2E 0E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E 2E	OE C OE C OE C OE, 2E C, n OE C 2E n OE C 2E n OE C 2E n 2E	OE C SCIRPUS AMERICANUS OE C SENECIO CONGESTUS OE, C SENECIO CONGESTUS OE, C C ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS OE C INTERTIDAL MARSH 2E N CAREX GLAREOSA OE C CAREX MACKENZIEI CAREX PALEACEA CAREX SUBSPATHACEA ELEOCHARIS SMALLII AIPPURIS TETRAPHYLLA POTAMOGETON PILIFORMIS - POTAMOGETON PECTINATUS POTENTILLA ANSERINA VAR GROENLANDICA PUCCINELLIA PHRYGANODES SCIRPUS MARITIMUS SENECIO CONGESTUS ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS EN SHALLOW WATER EE N MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA MYRIOPHYLLUM SIBIRICUM DE N POTAMOGETON FILIFORMIS POTAMOGETON ALPINUS POTAMOGETON ALPINUS POTAMOGETON RICHARDSONII RANUNCULUS AQUATILIS (S.I.) RANUNCULUS AQUATILIS (S.I.) RANUNCULUS GMELINII DEE N RANUNCULUS GMELINII	0E C SCIRPUS AMERICANUS 2E 0E C SCIRPUS RUFUS 1E, 2E 0E C SENECIO CONGESTUS 1E, 2E 0E C ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS 0E, 2E 0E C CAREX GLAREOSA 0E 0E C CAREX GLAREOSA 0E 0E CAREX SUBSPATHACEA 0E 0E

Appendix C

Catalogue of Wetland Site Types

Original and referenced site-type data, with depth-to-water, surface-water pH, peat depth and location. Sites types in the catalogue that are represented by three or more samplings are presented as data ranges and averages. Site types with only one or two sample sites are presented as raw data.

References to depth of active layer imply sites at which ice was not penetrated by peat rods, sites with continuous permafrost (= ice greater than ± 30 cm). The presence of penetrated ice lenses (= $<\pm 30$ cm thick) indicates sites with seasonally thinned, discontinuous permafrost.

Sample sites referred to in the catalogue numbered and indicated on Fig 6. Other sample sites are referenced as general location (e.g., SW James Bay) or by literature source (e.g., Maycock 1979), and these general locations are also indicated on Fig. 6. More detailed locations of quantitative sample sites are referenced on 1:250,000 N.T.S. mapsheets stored digitally at OMNR, Ontario Parks, Peterborough, and with

Nomenclature for vascular plants follows Riley (2003); and *Flora North America* synonyms are listed in Appendix E. *Sphagnum* nomenclature follows *Flora North America* (2007, vol. 27).

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	рH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
PEAT PLATEAU					
TREED					
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM - CLADINA Cladina spp. 95,100 - Ledum groenlandicum 10,20 - Picea mariana 10,10	Unsaturated	Dry	Permafrost (>3.0m, with	334B 305A	1E 1E
TREED LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM Pleurozium schreberi 90 - Cladina spp. 30 - Ledum	Unsaturated	Dry	active layer 25-35cm) Permafrost	Aguatuk	1E
groenlandicum ²⁰ - Picea mariana ²⁰ - Rubus chamaemorus ⁷					
OPEN OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU LEDUM - CLADINA Cladina spp. 80,85 - Ledum groenlandicum 2,4 - Ledum decumbens 0,18	Unsaturated	Dry	Permafrost	261D	0E
			(3.4,>4.5m; active layers 25,70cm)	6028	18
Cladina spp Ledum decumbens - Vaccinium vitis-idaea - Epilobium angustifolium (post-burn)	Unsaturated	Dry	Permafrost (active layer 30cm)	285	OE

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	рĦ	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
RHODODENDRON LAPPONICUM - LEDUM DECUMBENS - CLADINA Cladina spp Rhododendron lapponicum - Ledum decumbens - Dryas integrifolia	Unsaturated	Dry	Permafrost (active layer 55cm)	54°33′N, 83°41′W (43J-9A)	1E
OPEN LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA - CLADINA Sphagnum fuscum 60 - Chamaedaphne calyclata 25. Cladina spp. 17 - Picea mariana 10	25	3.9	Permafrost (active layer 35cm)	831A	OE

Note: OPEN GRAMINOID PEAT PLATEAU – This permafrost group is not segregated here because it is physiognomically indistinct from OPEN GRAMINOID FEN (dominated by *Carex aquatilis, C. limosa, C. saxatilis, Scirpus cespitosus, Scorpidium scorpioides* and *S. turgescens; e.g., 267, 270A, 322B, 828, and* Kershaw 1974, series a,b) or OPEN GRAMINOID BOG (dominated *Carex rariffora, Cladopodiella fluitans, Sphagnum lindbergii; e.g., 261A,C, 285, 333B*), from which they differ in being continuously flat, raised, flat and wet, without the hummock-hollow physiognomy of OPEN LOWSHRUB PEAT PLATEAU.

BOG

TREED

TREED SHRUB-RICH BOG

PICEA MARIANA - CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA

Picea mariana ²⁰⁻⁶⁵ - *Chamaedaphne caluculata* ¹⁵⁻⁶⁵ - 15-45 3.0-4.0 2.0->4.0 − south 2E

Sphagnum fuscum 0-90 - Pleurozium schreberi 40-90 -

Kalmia angustifolia 0-40 - K. polifolia 0-15 -

Rubus chamaemorus 0-15 - Smilacina trifolia 0-35 -

S. recurvum - S. magellanicum

Note: More common south in ecoregion 3E (Jeglum and Boissonneau 1977), and grading into prevailing TREED LOWSHRUB BOG, and black spruce CONIFER SWAMP, which has peat generally €30cm and tree cover ≥25%. See Carleton and Maycock 1978:1169, for equivalent open spruce bog class.

PICEA MARIANA - KALMIA ANGUSTIFOLIA Sphagnum fuscum ⁶⁰ - Cladina rangiferina ⁴⁰ -					
Kalmia angustifolia ²⁵ - Picea mariana ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	2		3.0 (ice lens at 50cm)	Kinoje	2E
TREED LOWSHRUB BOG					
PICEA MARIANA					
Sphagnum fuscum 90 - Picea mariana 30,50 -	45	4.7,4.8	1.5	299B	1E
shrubs<135 cm 7,10				454	2E
PICEA MARIANA - CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA					
Sphagnum fuscum ⁶⁰⁻⁽⁷⁷⁾⁻⁹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²³⁻⁽⁴⁰⁾⁻⁶⁰ - Picea mariana ¹⁸⁻⁽²⁶⁾⁻⁴⁰	15-(34)60 Some unsaturated	2.9-(4.1)-4.6	1.3-(2.4)->3.9	391C, 483A, 513C, 519, 527B, 534, 554C, 573B	2E
Sphagnum fuscum 40-(68)-90 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 35-(40)-45 - Picea mariana 10-(20)-35 - Pleurozium schreberi 0-(18)-55	One site unsaturated, one with ice lens	4.5-(4.9)-5.1	1.3-(1.6)-2.1	304A,368, 367B	1E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE	Pepth-to-water	er pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6	Ecoregio
Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	(mean) (cm)			except as indicated	
Sphagnum fuscum ⁵⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁰ - Picea mariana ¹⁹	70	-		821	2E
Sphagnum rubellum ⁸⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁷⁰ - Picea mariana ¹⁶	65	3.6	1.4	570C	2E
Sphagnum fallax 40-(63)-85 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 20-(41)-55 Picea mariana 10-(16)-23	- 22-(29)-32	3.8-(4.2)-4.5	0.6-(2.3)-3.6	448,502B,495,489B	2E
Note: Transitional sites were sampled, similar to this except with	Larix persisting,	to the exclusion	on of <i>Picea, e.g.</i> ,	494	2E
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM					
Sphagnum fuscum 95 - Picea mariana 25 - Ledum groenlandicum 25 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 5 (post-burn site)	30	4.1	2.2	495	2E
Sphagnum fuscum ⁶⁰ - Cladina alpestris ⁴⁰ · Ledum groenlandicum ⁴⁰ - Picea mariana ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	19		1.8 (ice lens present)	Kinoje	2E
Ledum groenlandicum ⁵⁰ - Cladina rangilerina ³⁰ - Pleurozium schreberi ²⁵ - Sphagnum rubellum ²⁵ - Picea mariana ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	Unsaturated		2.6 (ice lens at 40cm)	Kinoje	2E
Picea mariana - Ledum groenlandicum ⁵⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata - Eriophorum spissum - Sphagnum fuscum Cladina spp.	Unsaturated	3.4	1.5 (ice lens at 40cm)	Attawapiskat	2E
Pleurozium schreberi ⁷⁰ - Picea mariana ⁶⁰ - Ledum groenlandicum ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	30	*	3.0 (ice lenses 45-160cm)	Kinoje	2E
Picea mariana ³¹ - Sphagnum fuscum ¹⁹ - Ledum groenlandicum ¹⁷ - Cladium rangiferina ¹² (average, n= 4; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	40	3.5	2.2	Kinoje	2E
TREED LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG PICEA MARIANA - CLADINA					
Cladina spp. 45 - Sphagnum fuscum 40 - Rubus chamaemorus 25 - Picea mariana 10 - Ledum groenlandicum 10 ("Hollow" phase of palsa field)	-		>2.0	Aquatuk	1E
Cladina spp. 65-(70)-75 - Picea mariana ¹⁵⁻⁽²⁰⁾⁻²⁵ - Ledum groenlandicum ¹⁻⁽⁷⁾⁻¹² - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁴⁻⁽¹³⁾⁻²⁵ - Pleurozium schreberi	25-(29)-32	4.1-(4.4)-5.0	1.0-(1.5)-1.8	319A,356B 403A	1E 2E
TREED GRAMINOID BOG PICEA MARIANA - CAREX OLIGOSPERMA					
Carex oligosperma ³⁰⁻⁽⁴³⁾⁻⁶⁵ - Picea mariana ¹³⁻⁽¹⁶⁾⁻¹⁸ - Sphagnum fuscum ⁰⁻⁽²²⁾⁻⁵⁵ - S. fallax ⁰⁻⁽³⁷⁾⁻⁸⁵ (S. magellanicum, S. riparium)	17-(21)-25	4.1-(4.7)-4.9	0.8-(1.4)-2.1	403C,467C,482	2E
og					
PEN					
OPEN SHRUB-RICH BOG PICEA MARIANA - THUJA OCCIDENTALIS (Shrubs)					
Sphagnum fuscum ⁸⁵ - Picea mariana ²⁰ - Thuja occidentalis ²⁰ - Dicranum undulatum ¹⁰ - Larix laricina ⁵	12	4.1	2.2	437B	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Pepth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	рН	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
OPEN LOWSHRUB BOG					
CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA Sphagnum fuscum 60-(79)-95 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 10-(30)-50 - Picea mariana 0-(11)-45 - Sphagnum fallax 0-(9)-30	12-(31)-45	3.1-(4.0)-4.6	1.7-(2.4)-3.8	18,6,412,4348,436, 455,4578,489A,491B, 4678,532A,493B,505, 513B,515,529,533,539B	2E
Sphagnum fuscum ⁶⁵⁻⁽⁷⁷⁾⁻⁹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ^{8-(19)-2!} Picea mariana ⁰⁻⁽⁵⁾⁻²⁰ - S. fallax ⁰⁻⁽⁶⁾⁻²⁰ (- S. lenense)	(5 of 6 sites unsaturated, 2 with ice)	3.8-(4.5)-5.2 pH 5.7 at one dry site	0.7-(1.5)-2.2 (active layers of 17-38cm in sites with ice)	276,831A,833A 274B,366B, 369A,388B	OE 1E
Sphagnum fuscum ³⁸ - Picea mariana ²¹ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁶ -Kalmia angustifolia ¹³ (average, n = 8; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	25 With Itel	3.6	2.6	Kinoje	2E
Sphagnum rubellum 80-(88)-100 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 20-(34)-70 - Picea mariana 0-(4)-10 - S. fallax 0-(13)-20	15-(21)-27	3.1-(4.4)-5.1	1.4-(2.3)->3.9	356A,292B 487,407B	1E 2E
Sphagnum fallax 50-(78)-100 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 6-(33)-50 Picea mariana 0-(5)-10 - S. magellanicum 0-(11)-35	2-(11)-17	3.9-(4.6)-4.8	2.2-(2.8)-3.5	300B 416,440B,445B	1E 2E
Sphagnum lindbergii 70,100 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 15,30	5,25	4.0,4.5	1.8,3.0	281 567	1E 2E
Sphagnum nemoreum 60-(84)-100 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 11-(18)-35 - Sphagnum fallax 0-(6)-20 - Picea mariana 1-(6)-10 - Sphagnum fuscum 0-(6)-20	12-(19)-25	2.8-(3.7)-4.9	1.6-(3.4)->3.9	466, 486B,453B, 507B,508B,522, 562C	2E
Sphagnum majus 60,40 - S. fallax 40,35 - Chamaedaphne calyculata ^{25,25} - Carex limosa ^{10,30}	5,15	4.6,5.0	1.7,3.9	423B,485B	2E
Sphagnum subsecundum ⁵⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁵ - Sphagnum fuscum ²⁰ - Scirpus hudsonianus ²⁰	15	4.8	2.6	476B	2E
Sphagnum fuscum - Cladina spp Chamaedaphne calyculata - Ledum groenlandicum		5.5	0.9	Attawapiskat	2E
CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA - GRAMINOIDS Sphagnum nemoreum 65-(53)-95 and/or Sphagnum majus 30-(38)-85 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 10-(16)-20 - Scheuchzeria palustris 3-(11)-25 - Carex limosa 7-(9)-12	0-(4)-7	3.3-(3.8)-4.1	2.9-(3.3)-3.9	509,415,412	2E
Sphagnum magellanicum ⁵⁵ – Calliergon stramineum ³⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ³⁰ - Scheuchzeria palustris ¹⁰	10	4.5	>3.9	473	2E
Sphagnum fuscum ^{4 0} - S. nemoreum ⁴⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁰ - Carex aquatilis ¹⁰	0	5.0	(active layer 50cm over unpenetrated ice)	399	2E
Sphagnum fallax ⁹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁰ - Carex magellanica ¹⁰ Carex oligosperma ¹⁰ - Eriophorum spp. ⁷ Carex utriculata ⁵	7	5.1	1.6	420	2E

Note: This Dominance Type is transitional to OPEN GRAMINOID BOG. As well, the above Dominance Types include species that, southward, characterize more fen-like peatlands, and are sometimes said to indicate 'poor fen,' a class that is not used here (see page 107).

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	er pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregio
OPEN LICHEN-RICH LOWSHRUB BOG CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA - CLADINA					
Cladina spp. 45-(63)-90 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 5-(25)-50 - Sphagnum fuscum 0-(23)-50 - Picea mariana 5-(20)-36 - Kalmia angustifolia 0-(18)-15	14-(35)-65 (occasionally unsaturated)	2.9-(3.6)-4.9 (pH 5.5 at one dry site)	,	3A,221A, 226D, 401B,405B,556B, 558 559,561,568B,569,572	*
Sphagnum fuscum 60,85 - Cladina spp. 45,50 - Picea mariana 10,18 -Ledum groenlandicum 10	15 at 1 site, unsaturated at other	4.5,4.7	>2.0 (active layers 40, 100cm over ice lenses)	320B 602C	0E 1E
Cladina spp. ⁴⁸ - Sphagnum fuscum ⁴⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²² - Picea mariana ⁸	75	4.3		Kinoje	2E
LEDUM GROENLANDICUM — CLADINA Cladina mitis ⁴⁵ - Ledum groenlandicum ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	0		2.5 (ice lens at 43cm)	Kinoje	2E
OPEN GRAMINOID BOG CAREX AQUATILIS			(and a second		
Sphagnum riparium 15,80 - Carex aquatilis 50,60 (S. fallax and/or S. lindbergii)	0	4.7,5.3	2.1 (active layer 25cm over ice at other site)	270C,344	OE
CAREX LIMOSA Cladopodiella fluitans 45-(48)-50 - Sphagnum lindbergii 25-(22)-40 S. nemoreum 10-(10)-20 - Carex limosa 5-(8)-12 - Rhynchospora alba 1-(4)-5 - (S. tenellum also subdominant)	- 0	4.0-(4.6)-4.8	2.1-(2.8)-3.7	401A,446,568A	2E
Sphagnum majus 95,100 - Carex limosa 7,20 - Sphagnum magellanicum 1,5 - Scheuchzeria palustris 4,5	5,5	4.5,4.7	2.6,2.8	457A,1A	2E
Sphagnum nemoreum 0-(43)-89 - S. fallax 0-(37)-70 - Carex limosa 12-(21)-30 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 3-(5)-	0-(1)-2	3.4-(3.8)-4.5	2.8-(3.1)-3.5	419,513A,518	2E
Sphagnum pulchrum ^{70,95} - Carex limosa ⁹⁻³⁰ - Sphagnum magellanicum ^{1,25} - Chamaedaphne calyculata ^{6,7}	2,15	3.9,4.7	1.6,1.6	451,528	2E
Sphagnum papillosum 80 - Cladopodiella fluitans 20 - Carex limosa 20	2	4.7	>3.9	460A	2E
Sphagnum annulatum 80,100 - Carex limosa 7,20 - Scheuchzeria palustris 5,0 - Rhynchospora alba 0,10	5.5	5.1,5.1	2.1,.9	407A 380	2E
Sphagnum lindbergii ^{70,80} - (Drepanocladus exannulatus ²⁵) - Carex limosa ^{15,20}	-2,5	4.3,4.7	3.2 (other site with active layer 1m over ice)	285 445A	OE 2E
S. riparium 95 - Carex limosa 13 - Vaccinium oxycoccus 13	0	5.3	2.7	278A	OE
CAREX MAGELLANICA Sphagnum riparium 100 - Eriophorum chamissonis 20 - Carex magellanica 15	5	4.8	2.2	300A	18
Sphagnum nemoreum 100 - Smilacina trifolia 15 - Carex magellanica 10 - Eriophorum vaginatum 5	2	4.2	2.5	497C	2E
CAREX OLIGOSPERMA Sphagnum fallax 80-(88)-100 – Carex oligosperma 15-(42)-70 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 1-(4)-10	17-(13)-25	3.9-(4.1)-4.8	1.0-(2.1)-2.9	390A,452B,423A, 427A,477C,483B, 491A,465,467A	2E

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	er pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregio
Sphagnum nemoreum 60-(84)-95 - Carex oligosperma 18-(36)-40 Chamaedaphne calyculata 1-(8)-15	10-(11)-12	3.7-(3.9)-4.3	2.6-(3.2)-3.8	484B,502A, 527A,511A	2E
Sphagnum lindbergii ^{70,80} - Carex oligosperma ^{40,55} - Chamaedaphne calyculata ^{0,5}	12,12	3.5,3.8	23,2.5	3B,564B	2E
Sphagnum majus 40-100 - Carex oligosperma 20-50	2,10	4.4,4.6	1.7,3.7	485A,571A	2E
Sphagnum pulchrum 100 - Carex oligosperma 35	0	4.2	2.2	297A	1E
Sphagnum tenellum 90 - Carex oligosperma 15	5	4.6	2.6	499	2E
Sphagnum riparium 90 - Carex oligosperma 20	7	4.2	2.2	493A	2E
Sphagnum rubellum 90 - Carex oligosperma 20	10	4.2	2.4	458	2E
Sphagnum magellanicum 70 - Carex oligosperma 40	2	4.8	1.9	391B	2E
CAREX RARIFLORA					
Sphagnum lindbergii 90 - Carex rariflora 7	-1	4.2	2.4 (active layer 55cm)	261A	OE
ERIOPHORUM VAGINATUM Sphagnum nemoreum 60-(83)-100 - Eriophorum vaginatum 8-(18)-38 Carex limosa 1-(4)-10	5- 5-(8)-17	3.3-(3.9)-4.6	2.7-(3.0)-3.6	440A,443,447, 484A,507A,556A,565/	2E
Sphagnum lindbergii 95 - Eriophorum vaginatum 30 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 6 - Carex oligosperma 5	5	3.9	3.5	453C	2E
Sphagnum magellanicum ⁷⁵ - S. majus ¹⁵ - Eriophorum vaginatum ¹⁵ - Carex limosa ¹⁰	10	3.6	2.6	1C	2E
Sphagnum riparium 90 - Eriophorum vaginatum 10	5	5.4	(active layer 38cm over unpenetrated ice)	337	1E
Sphagnum rubellum 95 - Eriophorum vaginatum 10	5	4.1	2.8	435	2E
RHYNCHOSPORA ALBA Cladopodiella fluitans ^{65,85} - Rhynchospora alba ^{20,15} - Sphagnum spp. ^{30,10} - Scirpus cespitosus ^{5,11}	2,5	4.0,5.1	2.5,3.5	508C,539A	2E
Sphagnum majus ²⁵ - S. pulchrum ²⁰ - S. rubellum ¹⁹ - S. tenellum ¹⁸ - Rhynchospora alba ¹⁸ - Gymnocolea inflata ¹⁴ (average, n = 5; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	18	5.9	1.3	Kinoje	2E
SCHEUCHZERIA PALUSTRIS Sphagnum fallax ^{80,100} - Cladopodiella fluitans ^{20,30} - Scheuchzeria palustris ^{8,10} - Carex limosa ^{3,0}	2,5	4.1,4.6	3.8,0.7	511B 369B	2E 1E
Sphagnum nemoreum 90 - Sphagnum pulchrum 10 - Scheuchzeria palustris 6 - Carex aquatilis 4	2	4.4	1.9	5728	2E
Drepanocladus exannulatus ⁸⁰ - Sphagnum centrale ¹⁵ - Scheuchzeria palustris ¹⁰ - Eriophorum gracile ¹⁰	0	4.5	1.9	391D	2E
Cladopodiella fluitans ⁶⁰ - Sphagnum lindbergii ⁴⁵ - Scheuchzeria palustris ¹⁰ - Carex limosa ⁵	0	4.1	>1.5	Aquatuk	1E
SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS Cladopodiella fluitans 40-(73)-100 - Scirpus cespitosus 7-(24)-40 - Sphagnum spp. 0-(21)-60	0-(2)-5	4.4-(4.9)-5.1	2.4,>2.0	333B, 335,602A	OE 1E
Cladopodiella fluitans ³⁰ - Scirpus cespitosus ¹⁵ - Sphagnum lindbergii ⁵ - Andromeda polifolia ⁵	1	4.2	1.9 (active layer 0.5cm over ice)	261B	OE

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	er pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
Sphagnum lindbergii ^{80,82} - Scirpus cespitosus ^{5,15} - Carex rariflora ^{3,10}	0,5	4.8,4.8	1.8,2.4 (active layer 55cm at one ice-cored site)	261C 334A	0E 1E
Sphagnum majus 50-(83)-100 - Scirpus cespitosus 15-(23)-35 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 0-(3)-5	5,5	3.9-(4.6)-5.0	1.6-(2.2)-2.6	320A 305B 405A	0E 1E 2E
Sphagnum pulchrum 40 - Scorpidium scorpioides 20 - Cladopodiella fluitans 20 - Scirpus cespitosus 15 - Carex limosa 10	0	5.1	1.5	348	1E
Sphagnum lindbergii 60 - Cladopodiella fluitans 40 - Scirpus cespitosus 40 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 10 - Carex rariflora 5 (Note: Hollow phase of palsa field.)	0	4.4	>2.0	Aquatuk	1E
Note: The above Dominance Types of OPEN GRAMINOID BOG and are sometimes said to indicate 'poor fen,' a class that is not a	include species t used here (see p	hat, southwa	rd, characterize more fe	n-like peatlands,	
OPEN SPHAGNUM BOG SPHAGNUM FUSCUM					
Sphagnum fuscum ⁸⁰ - Spagnum spp. ⁶ - Picea mariana ⁵ - Cladina spp. ⁴	10	3.2	4.0	429	2E
Sphagnum fuscum 45 - Cladina rangiferina 20 (Cowell et al. 1978)	7	•	2.3 (ice lens 42cm)	Kinoje	2E
SPHAGNUM MAGELLANICUM Sphagnum magellanicum ⁵⁵ – S. rubellum ³⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	0	-	2.1	Kinoje	2E
SPHAGNUM NEMOREUM Sphagnum nemoreum 75 - Sphagnum spp. 20 - Carex oligosperma 4 - Scheuchzeria palustris 3	10	3.0	3.7	(ice lens 90cm) 520	2E
Sphagnum nemoreum 75 - Cladopodiella fluitans 25 - Carex limosa	3 2	3.2	5.0	4400	
OPEN POOL BOG CLADOPODIELLA FLUITANS Cladopodiella fluitans 55 - Sphagnum nemoreum 45 -	-5	4.9	>3.9	449B 516	2E 2E
Carex limosa 15 - Rhynchospora alba 5		***	- 3.7	510	20
Cladopodiella fluitans 80 - (open water ²⁰)	-10	3.3	2.9 (5cm ice lens at 40cm)	565	2E
SPHAGNUM MAGELLANICUM - CAREX OLIGOSPERMA Sphagnum magellanicum ⁷⁵ - Carex oligosperma ⁴⁰ - Sphagnum squarrosum ²⁰	-5	4.2	1.7	434A	2E
SPHAGNUM LINDBERGII Sphagnum lindbergii ⁸⁰ - Carex oligosperma ³⁰ - Cladopodiella fluitans ²⁰ - Scirpus cespitosus ¹⁷	0	4.4	>2.0	Aquatuk	18
SPHAGNUM MAJUS Sphagnum majus ²⁰ - Rhynchospora alba ¹⁵ - Utricularia cornuta ¹⁵ - Sphagnum nemoreum ¹⁰	-2	4.8	*	389	2E
Sphagnum majus 90 - Scheuchzeria palustris 10	-7	4.1	>3.9	486A	2E
Sphagnum majus 70 - Carex limosa 3	-5	5.1	3.2	449A	2E
Sphagnum majus 90 - Carex oligosperma 15	-5	4.7	1.5	378C	1E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	г рН	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
FEN					
TREED TREED SHRUB-RICH FEN LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA Pleurozium schreberi 65 - Sphagnum russowii 20 - Larix laricina 10 - Betula pumila 10-, Ledum groenlandicum 10 -	12	5.5	1.2	312B	OE
Carex aquatilis ⁵ Sphagnum fallax ⁶⁰ - Larix laricina ³⁵ - Aulocomnium palustre ³⁰ -	12	5.4	2.7	541A	2E
Betula pumila 25 - Equisetum fluviatile 25		3.1	2017	2	
LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA - CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA Composite: Sphagnum spp. 80-(90)-95) - non-Sphagnum mosses 5-(10)-20 - Larix laricina 10-(17)-30 - Betula pumila 6-(14)-25 - Salix spp. 1-(9)-25)	5-(17)-25	4.8-(5.4)-5.9	1.5-(2.4)-3.0	(as follows)	1E, 2E
Sphagnum warnstorfii ⁸⁰ - Betula pumila ²⁵ - Bryum pseudotriquetrum ²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ¹⁵ - Larix laricina ¹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁰ - Carex limosa ⁸	5	5.9	3.0	295B	1E
Sphagnum fallax ⁶⁵ - Sphagnum magellanicum ³⁰ - Larix laricina ³⁰ - Salix pedicellaris ²⁵ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁰ - Betula pumila ¹²	25	5.5	1.5	550	2E
Sphagnum majus ⁷⁰ - Sphagnum fuscum ¹⁵ - Larix Iaricina ¹⁰ - Sphagnum magellanicum ⁸ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁷ - Betula pumila ⁶ - Drepanocladus exannulatus ⁵	20	4.8	2.7	444	2E
TREED LOWSHRUB FEN LARIX LARICINA - ANDROMEDA GLAUCOPHYLLA Composite: Sphagnum spp. 15-(50)-83 - non-Sphagnum mosses 1-(28)-65 - Andromeda glaucophylla 10-(23)-30 - Larix laricina 10-(19)-35 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 1-(12)-25 - Betula pumila 4-(5)-5)	10-(13)-15	5.1-(5.3)-5.6	2.5-(3.0)-3.3	(as follows)	2E
Campylium stellatum ⁶⁰ - Larix laricina ³⁵ - Pleurozium schreberi ²⁰ - Sphagnum warnstorfii ¹⁵ - Andromeda glaucophylla ¹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁹	15	5.6	2.5	560A	2E
Sphagnum fuscum ⁵⁰ - S. warnstorfii ³⁰ - Andromeda glaucophylla ³⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁵ - Larix laricina ¹²	10	5.1	3.3	433	2E
Sphagnum fallax ⁵⁰ - S. magellanicum ³⁰ - Andromeda glaucophylla ³⁰ - Drepanocladus exannulatus ¹⁷ - Larix Iaricina ¹⁰	15	5.3	3.1	462A	2E
LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA Composite: Sphagnum spp. 10-(50)-100 - non-Sphagnum mosses 0-(46)-80. Larix laricina 12-(19)-33 - Betula pumila 8-(17)-35 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 0-(6)-20 - Carex limosa 0-(6)-10)	5-(14)-22	4.8-(5.3)-5.9	1.5-(2.3)-2.9	(as follows)	1E, 2E
Sphagnum warnstorfii ^{47,80,90} - Larix laricina ^{11,20,33} - Betula pumila ^{12,13,20} (Campylium stellatum ^{0,5,40} , Drepanocladus exannulatus ^{0,0,15} , Sphagnum magellanicum ^{0,0,10})	17,17,20	5.0,5.4,5.5	0.6,2.1,2.9	554A,557A,822	2E

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	pН	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregio
Drepanocladus exannulatus ³⁶ - Sphagnum fallax ³⁵ - Larix laricina ¹⁷ -Sphagnum fuscum ¹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁰ - Betula pumila ⁸	17	5.0	1.5	573A	2E
Sphagnum fallax 90 - Betula pumila 15 - Larix laricina 12 - S. magellanicum 10 - Carex limosa 9	7	5.2	2.6	5328	2E
Tomenthypnum nitens 65 - Sphagnum fallax ²⁵ - Larix laricina ²⁵ -Betula pumila ²⁰	5	5.9	1.9	371A	1E
Scorpidium scorpioides ⁸⁰ - Larix Iaricina ²⁰ - Betula pumila ¹⁰ Sphagnum fuscum ¹⁰ - Carex limosa ¹⁰	- 2.	5.8	2.4	297B	1E
Sphagnum subsecundum ⁴⁰ - S. centrale ³⁰ - Larix laricina ²⁰ - Betula pumila ²⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ²⁰ - Carex limosa ¹⁰	17	4.8	2.1	506	2E
Sphagnum lindbergii 48 - Drepanocladus fluitans 30 - Larix laricina 15 - Betula pumila 10 - Carex limosa 10	22	4.9	2.5	564A	2E
Campylium stellatum ⁶⁰ - Carex Iasiocarpa ⁴⁰ - Cladopodiella fluitans ²⁰ - Betula pumila ²⁰ - Larix Iaricina ¹⁵ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁵	20	5.2	2.7	498A	2E
Tomenthypnum nitens ⁸⁰ - Betula pumila ³⁵ - Menyanthes trifoliata ³⁵ - Larix laricina ¹⁵ - Carex limosa ¹⁰ - Sphagnum subsecundum ¹⁰	15	5.9	2.5	5008	2E
Note: Some paludified TREED LOWSHRUB FENS are transition.	al to BOG: for exar	nple,			
Sphagnum obtusum 100 - Larix Iaricina 10 - Betula pumila 5 - Carex aquatilis 5 - Carex magellanica 5	0	5.2	1.6	3088	OE
LARIX LARICINA - CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA Larix laricina 13 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 14 - Sphagnum warnstorfii 12 - Carex limosa 11 - Betula pumila 9 (average, n = 5; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	18	5.9	1.3	Kinoje	2E
LARIX LARICINA - SALIX CANDIDA Larix laricina - Salix candida - Betula pumila - Carex aquatilis			1.0	Fort Severn	OE
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - LARIX LARICINA - BETULA PUMILA Sphagnum rubellum ⁷⁰ - Thuja occidentalis ⁴⁰ - S. centrale ¹⁰ - Larix laricina ⁹ - Betula pumila ⁸	30	5.3	1.3	563B	2E
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - MYRICA GALE Sphagnum warnstorfii 40 - S. magellanicum 40 - Myrica gale 35 - Thuja occidentalis 20 (Cowell et al. 1978)	6		1.1	Kinoje	2E
Thuja occidentalis ²⁶ - Sphagnum magellanicum ²⁴ - Myrica gale ¹⁷ - S russowii ¹⁶ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁹ (average, n = 4; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	18	5.9	1.3	Kinoje	2E
REED GRAMINOID FEN LARIX LARICINA - CAREX CHORDORRHIZA - CAREX LIMOSA Sphagnum fallax 70 - Carex chordorrhiza 20 - C. limosa 15 - Sphagnum magellanicum 15 - Drepanocladus exannulatus 10 - Larix laricina 10	17	5.0	2.4	477A	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	r pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
LARIX LARICINA - CAREX LASIOCARPA Sphagnum fallax 30 - Scorpidium scorpioides 25 - Campylium stellatum 25 - Sphagnum warnstorfii 15 - Carex lasiocarpa 10 - Larix laricina 10 - Scirpus cespitosus 5	15	5.3	1.8	391A	2E
LARIX LARICINA - CAREX LIMOSA - SCIRPUS HUDSONIANUS Sphagnum rubellum ³⁰ - S. magellanicum ³⁰ - S. fuscum ²⁰ - Larix Iaricina ¹⁵ - Campylium stellatum ¹⁰ - Tomenthypnum falcifolium ¹⁰ - Carex limosa ⁵ - Scirpus hudsonianus ⁵	20	5.5	3.8	490B	2E
Tomenthypnum nitens ⁶⁰ – Scorpidium scorpioides ⁴⁰ - Larix laricina ¹² - Scirpus hudsonianus ¹⁰ - Carex limosa ¹⁰ - Carex chordorrhiza ⁵ - Andromeda polifolia ⁵	2	6.5	2.2	361	1E
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS - SCIRPUS HUDSONIAUS - SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS Campylium stellatum 80 - Thuja occidentalis 10 - Scirpus hudsonianus 8 - Scirpus cespitosus 6 - Sphagnum warnstorfii 6 - Carex sterilis 5	7	6.2	1.8	456	2E
FEN					
OPEN					
OPEN SHRUB-RICH FEN LARIX LARICINA (shrub) - BETULA PUMILA Tomenthypnum nitens 60 - Sphagnum fallax 15 - S. nemoreum Larix Iaricina 10 - Betula pumila 10 - Equisetum fluviatile 5	0 - 15	5.7	1.0	372A	- 1E
SALIX PEDICELLARIS Salix pedicellaris 40 - Betula pumila 35 - Vaccinium uliginosum Campylium stellatum 10 - Pseudobryum cinclidoides 10	105	5.4	2.1	298A	1E
OPEN LOWSHRUB FEN					
ANDROMEDA GLAUCOPHYLLA Sphagnum obtusum 90 - Andromeda glaucophylla 30 - Calliergon stramineum 10 - Carex limosa 5	2	5.1	2.2	4978	2E
BETULA PUMILA Tomenthypnum nitens 70 - Scirpus hudsonianus 50 - Drepanocladus revolvens 15 - Betula pumila 10 - Larix laricina 5	2	6.1	1.3	422	2E
Betula pumila - Larix Iaricina (shrub) - Carex aquatilis -			-	Fort Severn	OE
Sphagnum magellanicum ⁷⁰ - Betula pumila ¹⁵ - S. subsecundum ¹⁰ - Andromeda glaucophylla ¹⁰ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ⁹	15	5.2	1.8	468	2E
Sphagnum fallax ⁸⁰ - Drepanocladus fluitans ¹⁵ - Larix laricina ¹⁰ - Betula pumila ⁸ - Carex chordorrhiza ⁷	12	4.9	>3.0	424	2E
CHAMAEDAPHNE CALYCULATA Drepanocladus exannulatus 51,70 - Chamaedaphne calyculata 10,40 - Sphagnum spp ,25,30 - Larix laricina 10,13	10,12	5.0,5.4	1.3,2.0	394,379	2E
Tomenthypnum nitens ⁴⁵ - Sphagnum fuscum ³⁵ - S. warnstorfii ¹⁵ - Chamaedaphne calyculata ¹⁰ - Betula pumila Larix laricina ⁵ - Picea mariana ⁶	35 8.	5.4	1.4	396A	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	рH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
LARIX LARICINA (shrub) - BETULA PUMILA Scorpidium scorpioides 80 - Scirpus cespitosus 40 - Larix laricina 16 (- Betula pumila 1-5)	0 0	6.2	1.0	273	0E
Paludella squarrosa ⁶⁰ - Tomenthypnum nitens ²⁰ - Carex aquatilis ¹⁵ - Larix laricina ¹⁰ - Betula pumila ⁵	15	5.7	(active layer 35cm)	283A	OE
MYRICA GALE Campylium stellatum 30 - Myrica gale 30 - Carex limosa 20 - Scorpidium scorpioides 20 - Potentilla fruticosa 15 - C. lasiocarpa	15	5.2	1.1	553A	2E
Campylium stellatum 10 - Myrica gale 10 - Betula pumila 6 - Potentilla fruticosa 5 - C. lasiocarpa 15	18	5.4	1.8	821	2E
Sphagnum teres ¹⁴ - Campylium stellatum ¹³ - Carex limosa ¹³ - Myrica gale ¹⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ¹⁰ - Potentilla fruticosa ⁶ - Andromeda glaucophylla ⁵ (average of n = 7; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	14	5.2	1.1	Kinoje	2E
POTENTILLA FRUTICOSA Campylium stellatum 40 - Sphagnum fallax 40 - Scirpus cespitosus 20 - Potentilla fruticosa 15 – Sphagnum warnstorfii 10	17	5.5	0.7	464	2E
Campylium stellatum 15 - Potentilla fruticosa 20 - Betula pumila 10 Carex lasiocarpa 8 - Larix laricina 8 - Scirpus cespitosus 5 - Myrica gale 4	- 12	5.5	1.0	819, Kinoje	2E
OPEN DWARF-SHRUB FEN Note: Northern sites with >30cm peat are part of tundra wetland series; ARCTOSTAPHYLOS ALPINA Arctostaphylos alpina 17 - Salix myrtillifolia 7 - S. lanata 7 - Vaccinium uliginosum 6 - Hedysarum alpinum 5 -	see also site type:	s under F	reshwater Dwarf-Sh -	RUB MEADOW MAI	RSH, below. 0E
Dryas integrifolia 4 - Solidago multiradiata 4 (riparian) VACCINIUM ULIGINOSUM Tomenthypnum nitens 52 - Drepanocladus vernicosus 18 - Vaccinium uliginosum 16 - Salix reticulata 12 - S. planifolia 10 -	5	6.0	(active layer 30cm)	227F	OE
Bartsia alpina ⁷ - Equisetum arvense ⁶ Aulocomnium palustre ⁴² - Dicranum undulatum ¹⁸ - Vaccinium uliginosum ¹⁴ - Hylocomnium splendens ¹² - Salix planifolia ¹⁰ - Betula glandulosa ⁶ - Empetrum nigrum ⁶ - Arctostaphylos alpina ⁶ (see also Kershaw 1974, series E, F)	5	5.9	(active layer 30cm)	227C	OE
OPEN GRAMINOID FEN CAREX AQUATILIS Drepanocladus spp. 95,100 - Carex aquatilis 5,15 - Betula pumila 1,10	5,7	6.0,6.2	(35,40cm	267 2220	
(See also Kershaw 1974, series A)	3,1	0.0,0.2	active layers)	267,322B	OE
Aulocomnium palustre ^{30,70} - Carex aquatilis ^{15,20} - Tomenthypnum niten ^{1,60} - Carex spp. ^{6,11}	0,5	5.8,6.5	0.6,1.6	308A,329B	30
Aulocomnium turgidum ²⁰ - Carex aquatilis ⁵ - C. capillaris ⁵ - Tomenthypnum nitens ⁵	20	7.0	(55cm active layer)	2688	OE 30
Scorpidium scorpioides 100 - Carex aquatilis 45	7	6.6	0.4	325	OE
					30
Note: This Dominance Type includes unpatterned permafrost (tuno	dra) fen plains, or	OPEN GR	RAMINOID PEAT PLATEA	U (see above); such	as

ORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	r pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregio
CAREX CHORDORRHIZA	2 (5) 10	56(61)66			
Campylium stellatum ²⁰⁻⁽⁶⁵⁾⁻¹⁰⁰ - Carex chordorrhiza ¹⁰⁻⁽¹⁸⁾⁻²⁰ - Scorpidium scorpioides ⁰⁻⁽¹⁴⁾⁻³⁰ - Carex limosa ¹⁻⁽⁵⁾⁻⁷	2-(5)-10	5.6-(6.1)-6.6	0.8-(1.1)-1.3	370 395,396B,574	1E 2E
Scorpidium scorpioides ¹⁰⁷ - Carex chordorrhiza ³⁰ - C. aquatilis ¹⁵ - C. limosa ¹⁰	10	6.3	0.6	323	0E
Scorpidium scorpioides ⁹⁴ - Carex chordorrhiza ⁶ - C. livida ⁴ - C. limosa ³	8	5.4	1.8	821	2E
Drepanocladus aduncus ⁶⁰ - Sphagnum obtusum ⁴⁰ - Carex chordorrhiza ²⁰ - Calamagrostis stricta ¹⁵ - Carex diandra ¹⁰	0	5.8	(active layer to 45cm)	277	1E
Drepanocladus vernicosus ⁶⁰ - Aulocomnium palustre ¹⁵ - Carex chordorrhiza ¹⁰ - Cinclidium stygium ¹⁰	20	5.4	1,1	392	2E
CAREX EXILIS					
Tomenthypnum nitens ³⁰ - Scorpidium scorpioides ²⁰ - Carex exilis ¹⁰ · Potentilla fruticosa ⁵	0	5.9	2.9	431	2E
Campylium stellatum ⁵⁰ - Carex exilis ⁴⁵ - Scorpidium scorpioides ³⁰ - Scirpus cespitosus ⁵	0	5.5	1.7	441	2E
CAREX LASIOCARPA Campylium stellatum 10-(34)-50 - Carex lasiocarpa 12-(41)-80 - Scorpidium scorpioides 0-(22)-40 - Carex limosa 0-(5)-10	0-(8)-15	5.5-(5.8)-6.1	0.6-(1.0)-1.3	4,5A,575	2E
Campylium stellatum ¹⁰ - Carex lasiocarpa ²⁵ - Myrica gale ⁸ - Potentilla fruticosa ¹² - Menyanthes trifoliata ⁵	12	5.5	1.0	819	2E
Sphagnum subsecundum ^{15,60} - Carex lasiocarpa ^{20,70} - (S. warnstorfii - Campylium stellatum - Rhynchospora alba)	5,10	5.2,5.4	1.6,2.4	562A,477B	2E
Drepanocladus revolvens 40 - Scorpidium scorpioides 30 - Carex lasiocarpa 18 - Potentilla fruticosa 15 - Scirpus cespitosus 10	17	5.9	1.2	549	2E
CAREX LIMOSA					
Scorpidium scorpioides 80 - Carex limosa 50 - C. rostrata (s.s.) 20	5	5.8	(32cm active layer)	270A	0E
Scorpidium scorpioides 100 - Carex limosa 15 - C. diandra 10 - Betula pumila 5 - Salix spp. 5	2	5.7	0.5	311	OE
Scorpidium scorpioides 40-(77)-100 - Carex limosa 10-(23)-45 - C. chordorrhiza 0-(7)-30 - Menyanthes trifoliata 1-(5)-20 - (Scirpus spp. 0-10 - Tomenthypnum nitens 0-25)	-10-(-1)-2	5.6-(6.0)-6.6	1.3-(2.1)-2.8 (active layers at two sites	270B,312A,322A 292A,295A,300C, 605	OE 1E
Consider an airida D. Constant			54 & 70cm)	5B,500A,548B	2E
Scorpidium scorpioides 12 - Carex limosa 11 - Menyanthes trifoliata 8 (average, n = 9; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	-1	5.5	1.7	Kinoje	2E
Sphagnum majus ⁹⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ³⁰ - Carex limosa ¹⁵ - Drepanocladus exannulatus ¹⁰	5	5.1	2.2	497A	2E
Campylium stellatum ⁶⁰⁻⁽⁷⁶⁾⁻⁹⁵ - Scorpidium scorpioides ⁰⁻⁽²²⁾⁻⁴⁰ . Carex limosa ⁵⁻⁽¹⁵⁾⁻³⁰	-2-(6)-15	5.5-(5.8)-6.0	1.6-(1.9)-2.5	297 2,560B	OE 2E
Drepanocladus exannulatus 80 - Carex limosa 20 - Mylia anomala	15 0	5.2	(active layer 65cm)	831B	1
Scorpidium scorpioides 80 - Carex limosa 15 - Scirpus cespitosus 8	5		(55cm active layer)	824	16
CAREX LIVIDA Cladopodiella fluitans ⁶⁰ - Carex livida ³³ - C. chordorrhiza ¹⁷ - C. limosa ⁵	10	5.8	1.0	372B	1E
Campylium stellatum 65 - Carex livida 10 - C. limosa 10 - Menyanthes trifoliata 8	10	5.8	1.0	3728	1E

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cn		Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
CAREX SAXATILIS Carex saxatilis - Equisetum variegatum - Drepanocladus spp Campylium stellatum (Kershaw 1974, series B,C)				Pen Islands	OE
CAREX UTRICULATA					0.0
Sphagnum majus ⁶⁰ - Drepanocladus exannulatus ⁴⁰ - Carex utriculata ³⁰ - C. limosa ⁴	2	4.9	1.7	571B	2E
SCIRPUS CESPITOSUS Scorpidium scorpioides 30-(66)-95 - Scirpus cespitosus 10-(27)-60 - Carex limosa 0-(7)-15 - C. livida 0-(3)-10 - Menyanthes trifoliata 0-(3)-5 - (-Sphagnum warnstorfii 0-10)	-2-(2)-5	5.1-(5.7)-6.5	0.9-(1.8)-2.3 (3 sites with active layers 35, 35 & 50cm)	268A,269,283B 299A,287,304B, 437A,452A,570A	0E 1E 2E
Scorpidium scorpioides ⁸⁰ - Scirpus cespitosus ¹⁶ - Carex limosa ⁹ - Rhynchospora alba ⁵ - Campylium stellatum ¹⁰	5	5.3	0.6	822	2E
Campylium stellatum ³⁰⁻⁽⁵³⁾⁻⁹⁰ - Scirpus cespitosus ¹⁵⁻⁽³⁸⁾⁻⁶⁵ - Scorpidium scorpioides ⁰⁻⁽¹³⁾⁻³⁰ (-Drepanocladus revolvens ⁰⁻⁴⁰ - Carex limosa ⁰⁻¹⁵ - C. chordorniza ⁰⁻²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ⁰⁻⁷)	-5-(3)-7	5.4-(6.0)-6.7	0.7-(1.3)-3.3 (1 site with 60cm active layer)	316,321 367A,596, 438,450,526, 554B,596	0E 1E 2E
(Algal marl ²⁵⁻⁽⁴⁵⁾⁻⁸⁰⁾ - Scirpus cespitosus ²⁰⁻⁽²⁷⁾⁻⁴⁰ - Scorpidium scorpioides ⁰⁻⁽⁹⁾⁻¹⁵ - Carex livida ¹⁻⁽⁷⁾⁻¹⁰ - C. limosa ⁰⁻⁽⁵⁾⁻¹⁰	0-(3)-7	5.9-(6.3)-6.7	0.4-(0.9)->2.0	275,329A	OE
Rhacomitrium lanuginosum 60 - Scirpus cespitosus 11 - Carex limosa 0-(7)-15 - C. chordorrhiza 7- Scorpidium scorpioides 5	5	6.5	(active layer	7,11,291 324	0E
Tomenthypnum nitens 60,90 - Scirpus cespitusus 15,25 - Scorpidium scorpioides 10,15	2,7	6.2,6,8	to 60cm) 0.5,1.0	362,363	18
Drepanocladus revolvens 60,90 - Scirpus cespitosus 25,50 - Carex lasiocarpa 10,20 - Scorpidium scorpioides 5,10 - Potentilla fruticosa 5,8	0,10	6.4,6.4	2.0,2.0	7,546	1E,2E
Scirpus cespitosus ⁷⁰ - Carex exilis ²⁰ - Sphagnum warnstorfii ¹⁵ - Sphagnum spp. ¹¹	7	5.4	>3.9	469A	2E
Scirpus cespitosus 65 - Sphagnum fuscum 3 0 - Campylium stellatum 10 - Potentilla fruticosa 7 - Carex exilis 6	17	5.3	2.5	544	2E
Sphagnum lenense 40 - Mylia anomala 20 - Scirpus cespitosus 20	2		(active layer to 100cm)	831C	OE
SCIRPUS HUDISONIANUS Scorpidium scorpioides 100 - Scirpus hudisonianus 22 - Equisetum fluviatile 22 - Carex limosa 5	5	6.0	1.4	358	1E
Drepanocladus revolvens 60 - Campylium stellatum 30 - Scirpus hudsonianus 20 - Andromeda polifolia 10	5	5.9	2.0	371B	16
PPEN POOL FEN ERIOPHORUM CHAMISSONIS (Open water and mud 95) - Eriophorum chamissonis 10 -					
Scirpus cespitosus ⁵ - Carex limosa ⁸	-5	6.0	>1.5 (ice lens 55cm)	10	OE
CAREX LIMOSA (Open water ⁸⁰⁻⁽⁸⁵⁾⁻¹⁰⁰) - Carex limosa ¹⁰⁻⁽¹³⁾⁻²⁰ (Sphagnum squarrosum, Scorpidium scorpioides, Utricularia intermedia, Scirpus hudsonianus, Carex chordorrhiza)	-10-(-12)-17	5.1-(5.7)-6.2	1.0-(2.2)->3.0 (one site with active layer 1m)	274A,319B 427B,462B	1E 2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	рН	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
(Open water ⁴⁰) - <i>Drepanocladus exannulatus</i> ¹⁰⁰ - <i>Carex limosa</i> ⁵⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ¹⁰	-5	5.6	(active layer 32cm)	278C	OE
(Open water ⁸⁵) - Carex limosa ²⁵ - Sphagnum warnstorfii ¹⁵ - Scirpus hudsonianus ¹⁰	-5	5.8	1.9	498B	2E
MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA (Open water 90-(93)-100) - Menyanthes trifoliata 7-(16)-20 - (Scorpidium scorpioides - Carex chordorrhiza - C. limosa)	-15-(-22)-30	5.2-(5.8)-6.3	0.9-(2.6)->3.9	460B,469B, 562B,570B	2E
(Open water ²⁰) - Cladopodiella fluitans ⁶⁰ - Sphagnum magellanicum ²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ²⁰ - Scheuchzeria palustris ¹⁵	-17	5.1	3.5	508A	2E
(Open water 0-(13)-20) - Drepanocladus exannulatus 60-(77)-90 - Menyanthes trifoliata 5-(13)-20 - Carex limosa 6-(9)-10 - Scheuchzeria palustris 1-(7)-15	-2-(-5)-10	5.3-(5.3)-5.4	2.6-(3.0)-3.5	440C,476A,557B	2E
Note: Same site type noted by Cowell et al. 1978	•		2.3 (ice lens 55cm)	Kinoje	2E
RHYNCHOSPORA ALBA Gymnocolea inflata ⁶⁰ - Sphagnum lenense ¹⁵ - Rhynchospora alba ⁵	10	5.2		Kinoje	2E
SCHEUCHZERIA PALUSTRIS (Open water ⁸⁰) - Scorpidium scorpioides ¹⁵ - Scheuchzeria palustris ¹⁰ - Carex chordorrhiza ⁸	-22	5.6	>3.9	490A	2E
SCORPIDIUM SCORPIOIDES Scorpidium scorpioides 100 (Cowell et al. 1978)	18 (rising palsa)	•	2.7 (ice lens 35cm)	Kinoje	2E
(Black detritus 50-60) - Scorpidium scorpioides 35-50 - Menyanthes trifoliata 3-5 - Scirpus cespitosus 1-2 - Carex limosa 0-9	0-5	5.2-5.3	0.6->1.0	822, Kinoje	2E
(Open water ³⁰) - Scorpidium scorpioides ⁸⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ⁴ - Carex livida ³	0	5.6	1.8	821	2E
(Water - black detritus 5 0-(60)-80) - Scorpidium scorpioides 20-(35)-4 Scirpus hudsonianus (12) - S. cespitosus (2)	5. 0	5.2	*	Kinoje	2E
Scorpidium scorpioides ⁴⁰ - Drepanocladus exannulatus ²⁴ - Sphagnum tenellum ¹⁴ - Carex limosa ¹¹ - Menyanthes trifoliata ⁹ (averages, n = 6; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	5	5.4	1.7	Kinoje	2E
SWAMP					
CONIFER SWAMP LARIX LARICINA					
Larix Iaricina ⁶⁰ - Pleurozium schreberi ⁵⁰ - Hylocomnium splendens ²⁰ - Sphagnum warnstorfii ²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ¹⁵ - Carex chordorrhiza ¹⁰	20	5.8	2.8	548A	2E
PICEA MARIANA - LEDUM GROENLANDICUM Cladina rangiferina ⁸⁰ - Ledum groenlandicum ⁵⁰ - Picea mariana ²³ - Pleurozium schreberi ²⁰ - Alnus crispa ⁵	Unsaturated	Unsaturated	0.3	Sturgeon Lake	1E
Note: Similar site type, Cowell et al. 1978	17	•	1.5 (ice lenses 35cm)	Kinoje	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	r pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
Picea mariana ³¹ - Pleurozium schreberi ²⁰ - Alnus rugosa ¹⁸ - Ledum groenlandicum ¹⁴ (average, n = 5; Jeglum and Cowell 198;	28	5.5	1.2	Kinoje	2E
Cladina rangiferina 55 - Picea mariana 40 - Ledum groenlandicum 30 - Sphagnum fuscum 15 - Cladina alpestris 15	60	3.3	1.7	571 C	2E
Cladina spp Ledum groenlandicum - Sphagnum fuscum - Picea mariana - Cornus canadensis - Vaccinium myrtilloides	Unsaturated	Unsaturated	0.5	Aquatuk	1E
Sphagnum fuscum - Picea mariana - Ledum groenlandicum - Cornus canadensis	*			422	2E
PICEA GLAUCA - ABIES BALSAMEA Picea glauca 34 - Abies balsamea 27 (Cowell et al. 1978)	4		0.2-0.5 (ice lens 50cm)	Kinoje	2E
THUJA OCCIDENTALIS			(ice iciis sociii)	Kenogami basin	2E
BROADLEAF SWAMP POPULUS BALSAMIFERA Campylium hispidulum ⁶⁰ - Alnus crispa ²⁵ -			0.15		
Populus balsamifera ¹⁵ - Calamagrostis canadensis ³⁰ - Carex aquatilis ¹⁰ - Salix planifolia ¹⁰			0.15	Aquatuk	1E
Populus balsamifera - Cornus stolonifera - Fraxinus nigra		-	*	Long Rapids	2E
ULMUS AMERICANA - FRAXINUS NIGRA Ulmus americana - Populus balsamifera - Fraxinus nigra - Matteuccia struthiopteris			0	Kenogami River, Pagwa River	2E
THICKET SWAMP ALNUS CRISPA				ragwa Kivei	
Campylium hispidulum ⁸⁵ - Alnus crispa ²⁵ - Salix planifolia ²⁰ - Myrica gale ¹³ - Betula pumila ¹⁵ - Rhamnus alnifolius ⁸ - Potentilla fruticosa ⁷ (lakeshore)		-	0.1	Aquatuk	1E
Campylium hispidulum ⁵⁰ - Alnus crispa ⁸⁰ - Salix planifolia ¹⁰ - Equisetum arvense ²			*	Aquatuk	1E
ALNUS RUGOSA					
Alnus rugosa ²⁵ - Rhamnus alnifolius ³⁰ - Viburnum edule ²⁰ - Salix bebbiana ¹⁰ - Cornus stolonifera ⁵		-	30cm peat and gravel over ice	274	1E
Alnus rugosa ³⁰ - <i>Glyceria grandis</i> ¹² - <i>Anemone canadensis</i> ¹¹ - <i>Agrostis gigantea</i> ⁷ - <i>Thalictrum venulosum</i> ⁶ (Riley and McKay 1980)	*			Shipsands	2E
Alnus rugosa ²¹ - Cornus canadensis ¹⁸ - Betula pumila ¹⁶ - Salix planifolia ¹⁵ (average, n = 2; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	-1	6.0	1.8	Kinoje	2E
CORNUS STOLONIFERA Cornus stolonifera - Salix exigua				Long Rapids	2E
MYRICA GALE Myrica gale (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	
SALIX CORDATA				San James pay	2E
Salix cordata - S. eriocephala (Potentilla anserina, P. fruticosa, Deschampsia cespitosa, Calamagrostis inexpansa, Thalictrum venulosum var. confine)			*	Attawapiskat	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-wate range (mean) (cm)	r pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
SALIX EXIGUA Salix exigua - Salix lucida - Populus balsamilera - Thalictrum venulosum	-			Kenogami	2E
Salix exigua 16 - Alnus rugosa 12 - Glyceria grandis 12 - Anemone canadensis 6 - Equisetum pratense 5 - Vicia cracca 5 (Riley and McKay 1980)	*	٠		Shipsands	2E
Salix exigua ²⁰ - Anemone canadensis ¹⁷ - Agrostis gigantea ¹² - Petasites sagittatus ¹² - Equisetum pratense ¹² - Impatiens biflora ¹¹ - Vicia cracca ⁹ (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
SALIX GLAUCA Salix glauca - Juncus balticus - Calamagrostis stricta - Lathyrus palustris (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E
Salix glauca ²⁶ - S. myrtillifolia ¹⁷ - S. planifolia ⁷ - Potentilla fruticosa ⁶	•	•	Riparian, over ice	Shagamu	0E
SALIX PELLITA				282	1E
Salix pellita - Populus balsamifera - S. lucida Salix pellita - S. cordata			-	Attawapiskat	2E
SALIX PLANIFOLIA Salix planifolia - S. candida (Maycock 1979)				-	0E
Salix planifolia - Calamagrostis canadensis			-	Fort Severn	OE
Salix planifolia - Alnus rugosa - Calamagrostis canadensis -					
Carex aquatilis -	*	*	-	Kenogami River	2E
Salix planifolia - Alnus crispa - Betula pumila - S. pedicellaris			-	Attawapiskat	2E
SALIX SERISSIMA Salix serissima 12 - Alnus rugosa 11 - Pyrola asarifolia 8 - Rubus acaulis 8 - Carex interior 6 - Equisetum pratense 5 (Riley and McKay 1980)		*	*	Shipsands	2E
Salix serissima ¹⁴ - Equisetum variegatum ⁸ - Alnus rugosa ⁷ - Juncus balticus ⁷ - Galium labradoricum ⁷ (Riley and McKay 198	0)		-	Shipsands	2E
MARSH					
FRESHWATER SHALLOW MARSH ARCTOPHILA FULVA					
Arctophila fulva - Hippuris vulgaris - Carex aquatilis - (with Cardamine pratensis, Calamagrostis stricta, Epilobium leptophyllum)	40	8.8 (conductivity 800 µmhos)	*	Shagamu	OE
CAREX AQUATILIS Carex aquatilis - Petasites sagittatus (with Caltha palustris, Carex diandra, Potentilla palustris)				Shagamu	OE
Carex aquatilis - C. chordorrhiza - Salix planifolia - Betula pumila - Eriophorum angustifolium (Maycock 1979)	*	٠	-	*	OE
CAREX LASIOCARPA Carex lasiocarpa 15 - (open water 100)	-35	6.7	0.5	336	1E
CAREX LIMOSA Carex limosa - C recta - C aquatilis - C diandra - C saxatilis (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)		Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
CAREX RECTA					
Carex recta - C. aquatilis - Geum rivale - Menyanthes trifoliata (Riley and McKay 1980) CAREX RETRORSA	٠	٠		SW James Bay	2E
Carex retrorsa - C. limosa - C. diandra (Riley and McKay 1980)			•	SW James Bay	2E
Carex retrorsa 35 - C. oligosperma 25 - Sphagnum annulatum 25	-20	5.1	>1.2	425	2E
CAREX UTRICULATA Carex utriculata - C. aquatilis - Carex saxatilis		60			
Carex utriculata 45 - C. aquatilis 25 (Also Riley and McKay 1980)		6.9 5.8	2.1	Shagamu 298B	OE 1E
Carex utriculata 45 - Potentilla palustris ²⁰ (Cowell et al. 1978)	-8		1.7 (ice lens 65cm)	SW James Bay Kinoje	2E 2E
Carex utriculata 33 - Eleocharis smallii 14 - Potentilla palustris 10 (averages, n = 2; Jeglum and Cowell 1982)	1	5.6	1.1	Kinoje	2E
ELEOCHARIS SMALLII					
Eleocharis smallii - E. acicularis - Carex rostrata s.s C. aquatilis	0 to -10	-	0	Aquatuk Kinoje	1E 2E
EQUISETUM FLUVIATILE Equisetum fluviatile - Menyanthes trifoliata - Myriophyllum sibiricum (Maycock 1979)	-			Kinoje	0E
Equisetum fluviatile - Carex diandra - Scorpidium scorpioides (- Potentilla palustris)		٠	٠	SW James Bay	2E
HIPPURIS VULGARIS Hippuris vulgaris	(up to)-30				
Hippuris vulgaris - Potamogeton filiformis (Maycock 1979)	(ap to) 50		•	Aquatuk	18
MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA Menyanthes trifoliata - Utricularia vulgaris -				SW James Bay	OE 2E
Carex aquatilis (Riley and McKay 1980)				over some out	26
Menyanthes trifoliata - Salix serissima - Carex lanuginosa - C. limosa (Riley and McKay 1980)	٠	•	٠	SW James Bay	2E
Menyanthes trifoliata - Carex aquatilis - Utricularia intermedia - Potentilla palustris (Maycock 1979)	*		*		OE
PETASITES SAGITTATUS					
Petasites sagittatus (with Carex glareosa, Stellaria longifolia, Cardamine pratensis, Epilobium leptophyllum	٠	8.8 (conductivity 800 µmhos)		Shagamu	OE
PHRAGMITES AUSTRALIS Phragmites australis		000 µmm03)		Dagen Tue	25
POTENTILLA PALUSTRIS Potentilla palustris - Carex limosa (Riley and McKay 1980)				Rogers Twp.	2E
EEP MARSH	-	•	٠	SW James Bay	2E
SCIRPUS ACUTUS					
Scirpus acutus 20 - Carex aquatilis 5	-20->100	5.7	1.8	403B	2E
TYPHA LATIFOLIA				4030	26
Typha latifolia (with Utricularia vulgaris, Carex aquatilis, C. retrorsa, Hippuris vulgaris, Lysimachia thyrsiflora, Geum rivale, Lemna trisulca) (Riley and McKay 1980)		•		SW James Bay	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
MEADOW MARSH					
ALOPECURUS AEQUALIS Alopecurus aequalis - Glyceria borealis - Rorippa palustris - Ranunculus gmelinii (karst sinkhole)			۰	Attawapiskat	2E
CALAMAGROSTIS CANADENSIS Calamagrostis canadensis - Potentilla palustris - Glyceria spp (drained beaver pond)	٠	•		480	2E
Calliergon giganteum – Calamagrostis canadensis - Juncus filiformis – Carex utriculata (karst sinkhole)		6.8		Attawapiskat	2E
CALAMAGROSTIS STRICTA Campylium stellatum 90 - Calamagrostis stricta 50 - Hierochloe pauciflora 10	5	6.2	(active layer 30cm)	264	OE
Calamagrostis stricta - Carex aquatilis	•		٠	Brant River	OE
CAREX AQUATILIS Carex aquatilis ²⁰ - Calamagrostis stricta ²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ²⁰	-15	5.8	>1.2	823	2E
Calliergon giganteum ^{20,70} - Carex aquatilis ^{3 5,50} (- Paludella squarrosa - C. diandra)	-5,-15	6.3,6.0	0.3,0.5	339 373	0E 1E
(Open water ¹⁰⁰) - Carex aquatilis ⁹⁰ - C. chordorrhiza ¹⁰ - Scorpidium scorpoides ¹⁰	-30	5.8	>2.0 (ice lens at 50 cm)	108	0E
Carex aquatilis 65 - (open water 40) - Chamaedaphne calyculata Scirpus hudsonianus 10	15 - 0	6.0	2.3	289	1E
Carex aquatilis - Poa arctica - Salix planifolia - Petasites frigidus - Epilobium palustre (Maycock 1979)	*	*		•	0E
CAREX LENTICULARIS Carex lenticularis - Eleocharis acicularis (karst sinkhole)		7.4		Attawapiskat	2E
CAREX SAXATILIS Carex saxatilis 30,60 - Salix spp. 1,2 - Triglochin maritima 1,1	-10,-20	6.3,6.7	0.3,0.3	265 286	0E 1E
CAREX VIRIDULA					,-
Carex viridula - Juncus pelocarpus - Eleocharis compressa (drained fen pond)	*			402	2E
EQUISETUM ARVENSE Equisetum arvense (Maycock 1979)					0E
EQUISETUM VARIEGATUM	•		•	•	ÜE.
Equisetum variegatum - Carex aquatilis - C microglochin - C. limosa - Pedicularis groenlandica (Maycock 1979; Kershaw 1974, series C)	•	**	•	Pen Islands	30
SCIRPUS CYPERINUS Scirpus cyperinus - Glyceria grandis -				5°14'N, 83°18'W	1E
Carex vulpinoidea (drained beaver pond) SHRUB-RICH MEADOW MARSH					
SALIX – MYRICA GALE – BETULA PUMILA Salix candida - Myrica gale - Betula pumila - Salix spp.	e		•	SW James Bay	2E
Salix candida 15 - Carex limosa ²⁰ - Equisetum fluviatile 6 - Myrica gale ⁵ (- Scorpidium scorpioides ⁴⁰ - Campylium stellatum ¹⁵)				SW James Bay	2E

PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Pepth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	pН	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
LOWSHRUB AND DWARF-SHRUB MEADOW MARSH					
Note: Includes exposed northern sites with >30cm peat, part of tund	Ira wetland series: se	e also site	types under OPEN DW	ADE CUDITO CEM SE	
BETULA PUMILA	returna series, ser	C 0130 31(C	types under OPEN DAN	AKT-SHKUB FEN, ADO	we.
Betula pumila - Salix glauca (Maycock 1979)					05
MYRICA GALE			*		0E
Myrica gale - Chamaedaphne calyculata - Betula pumila - Kalmia polifolia - Smilacina trifolia (Maycock 1979)				*	30
SALIX BRACHYCARPA					
Festuca rubra ⁵⁰ - Calamagrostis stricta ²⁵ - Salix brachycarpa ¹⁵ - S. candida ¹⁰ - S. glauca ⁵	•		0.05	55°20′N,85°12′W	OE.
Salix brachycarpa				Shagamu	0E
SALIX CANDIDA				30110	46
Scorpidium scorpioides ⁴⁰ - Salix candida ¹⁵ - Carex limosa ²⁰ - Menyanthes trifoliata ⁵ -Campylium stellatum ¹⁵		*	0.35	SW James Bay	2E
Salix candida - S. glauca	•			Partridge Island	OE
Salix candida - Carex aquatilis (Maycock 1979)	+				OE
SALIX GLAUCA Salix glauca - Carex aquatilis - Equisetum arvense - S. myrtillifolia - S. pellita (Maycock 1979; Kershaw 1974, series D	-			Pen Islands	0E
Salix glauca ²⁶ - S. myrtillifolia ²⁵ - Potentilla fruticosa ¹⁵ - Agropyron spp. (riparian tundra meadow marsh)	-			Shagamu	OE
Salix glauca - S. candida - Juncus balticus - Carex paleacea				SW James Bay	2E
Salix glauca - S. candida - Taraxacum ceratophorum - Senecio aureus				SW James Bay	2E
SALIX PELLITA					
Salix pellita - S. cordata - Alnus rugosa				Attawapiskat	2E
SALIX PLANIFOLIA					
Salix planifolia - S. arctophila - S. candida - Betula glandulosa - Carex spp.				Shagamu	OE
Salix planifolia - Salix candida (Maycock 1979)		*	*		OE
Salix planifolia - S. candida - S. glauca (Maycock 1979)					OE
STUARINE					
SUPRATIDAL MEADOW MARSH ANEMONE CANADENSIS					
Anemone canadensis - Thalictrum venulosum- Smilacina stellata (Riley and McKay 1980)		•		Shipsands	2E
AGROSTIS GIGANTEA Agrostis gigantea (Riley and McKay 1980)				Chinesado	25
CAREX RECTA				Shipsands	2E
Carex recta - Equisetum variegatum - Angelica atropurpurea (Riley and McKay 1980)		-		Arnold Point	2E
Carex recta - Menyanthes trifoliata - Angelica atropurpurea (Riley and McKay 1980)				Arnold Point	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
CAREX LIMOSA Carex limosa - Carex magellanica - Carex aquatilis - Rumex occidentalis (Riley and McKay 1980)		•		Arnold Point	2E
EQUISETUM VARIEGATUM Equisetum variegatum 100 (Riley and McKay 1980)		۰	e	Arnold Point	2E
FESTUCA RUBRA Festuca rubra (with Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica, Ranunculus crista-galli, Hordeum jubatum, Cicuta maculata, Hierochloe odorata) (Riley and McKay 1980)	٠	•		Shipsands	2E
JUNCUS BALTICUS Juncus balticus ⁷⁰ - Petasites sagittatus - Festuca rubra (Riley and McKay 1980)	٠	•	a	Shipsands	2E
RHINATHUS CRISTA-GALLI Rhinanthus crista-galli - Festuca rubra - Castilleja septentrionalis - Hierochloe odorata - Epilobium leptophyllum (Riley and McKay 1980	-			Shipsands	2E
INTERTIDAL MARSH BIDENS HYPERBOREA Bidens hyperborea - Sagittaria latifolia - Alisma plantago-aquatica (Riley and McKay 1980)			-	Shipsands	2E
CAREX PALEACEA Carex paleacea ²⁸ - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica ¹⁴ - Ranunculus cymbalaria ¹¹ - Triglochin maritima ⁸ (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
Carex paleacea ³⁴ - Festuca rubra ¹¹ - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica ¹¹ - Triglochin maritima ⁵ (Riley and McKay 1980)	-	٠	•	Shipsands	2E
CAREX RECTA Carex recta - Carex aquatilis (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
EQUISETUM FLUVIATILE Equisetum fluviatile - Juncus nodosus - Carex recta - Eleocharis smallii (Riley and McKay 1980)		٠	٠	Shipsands	2E
HIPPURIS VULGARIS Hippuris vulgaris - Eleocharis smallii (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
JUNCUS NODOSUS Juncus nodosus - Equisetum fluviatile - Carex utriculata (Riley and McKay 1980)		٠	٠	Shipsands	2E
LYSIMACHIA THYRSIFLORA Lysimachia thyrsiflora - Hippuris vulgaris - Sparganium spp. (Riley and McKay 1980)		•		Shipsands	2E
POTENTILLA ANSERINA var. GROENLANDICA Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica (with Carex paleacea, Aster robbynsianus, Hierochloe odorata) (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
PUCCINELLIA PHRYGANODES Puccinellia phryganodes (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
Puccinellia phryganodes - Triglochin palustris - Salicornia europae (Riley and McKay 1980)	a -	•		Shipsands	2E
SAGITTARIA LATIFOLIA Sagittaria latifolia - Eleocharis smallii - Scirpus validus (Riley and McKay 1980)		•	٠	Shipsands	2E

FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Depth-to-water range (mean) (cm)	рH	Peat depth range (mean) (m	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
SCIRPUS AMERICANUS					
Scirpus americanus - Scirpus validus - Eleocharis smallii - Triglochin palustris (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
SCIRPUS VALIDUS Scirpus validus (Riley and McKay 1980)					
Scirpus validus - Eleocharis smallii - Ranunculus cymbalaria - Sium suave - Carex paleacea (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands Shipsands	2E 2E
Scirpus validus - Hippuris vulgaris - Alisma triviale (Riley and McKay 1980)		,		Shipsands	2E
SENECIO CONGESTUS					
Senecio congestus (with Eleocharis smallii, Puccinellia phryganodes Catabrosa aquatica, Carex paleacea, Salicornia europaea) (Riley and McKay 1980)				Shipsands	2E
OASTAL SUPPATIDAL MEADOW MARSH CALAMAGROSTIS STRICTA					
Calamagrostis stricta (with Deschampsia cespitosa, Festuca rubra, Hordeum jubatum, Juncus balticus) (Riley and McKay 1980)			-	SW James Bay	2E
Calamagrostis stricta (- Salix candida) (Maycock 1979)					OE
CAREX GLAREOSA					UE
Carex glareosa - C. mackenziei - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica - Calamagrostis stricta - Ranunculus cymbalaria				Shagamu	OE
Carex glareosa - Festuca rubra - Hordeum jubatum - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica				Shagamu, Little Cape	OE
Carex glareosa – Menyanthes trifoliata				SW James Bay	2E
CAREX PALEACEA				Sw James Day	ZE
Carex paleacea ³⁰⁻⁸⁰ (with Utricularia vulgaris, Eleocharis smallii, Hippuris vulgaris, Ranunculus aquatilis, Cicuta mackenzieana, Epilobium spp.) (Riley and McKay 1980)		*		SW James Bay	2E
Carex paleacea 35 - Juncus balticus 6 - Eleocharis smallii 5 - Cicuta mackenzieana 5 - Amblystegium riparium 5				SW James Bay	2E
DESCHAMPSIA CESPITOSA					
Deschampsia cespitosa (Riley and McKay 1980, Ringius 1980)	-	-		SW James Bay	2E
Deschampsia cespitosa - Carex subspathacea (Maycock 1979) ELEOCHARIS SMALLII					0E
Eleocharis smallii (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E
FESTUCA RUBRA Festuca rubra 50-100 - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica (Riley and McKay 1980)			-	SW James Bay	2E
Festuca rubra - Hordeum jubatum (Riley and McKay 1980)					
Festuca rubra - Deschampsia cespitosa (Riley and McKay 1980)		*		SW James Bay	2E
Festuca rubra - Scirpus rufus (Riley and McKay 1980)	*	*		SW James Bay	2E
			*	SW James Bay	2E
Festuca rubra 90 - Carex paleacea 20 - Triglochin maritima 15	-			SW James Bay	2E
Festuca rubra ⁹⁰ -Triglochin maritima ¹⁵ - Deschampsia cespitosus ⁵ - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica ¹⁷	*	*		SW James Bay	2E

DRMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	-	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregio
Festuca rubra - Calamagrostis stricta - Dupontia fisheri (with Lomatogonium rotatum, Rhinanthus crista-galli - Parnassia palustris, Juncus balticus)			٠	Shagamu	OE
Festuca rubra ⁴³ - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica ¹⁷ - Carex subspathacea ⁶ - Chrysanthemum arcticum ⁵ - Plantago maritima	g 4		00	Shagamu	30
Festuca rubra - Carex glareosa- C. subspathacea		٠		Fog Point	OE
HIPPURIS VULGARIS Hippuris vulgaris (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E
Hippuris vulgaris - Carex glareosa - C. aquatilis	•			Shagamu	OE
Hippuris vulgaris - Potamogeton filiformis - Ranunculus aquatilis		8.9 (conductivity 2260 µmhos)		Shagamu, Little Cape	OE
JUNCUS BALTICUS				61	
Juncus balticus	•			Shagamu	OE
Juncus balticus - Calamagrostis stricta (with Lathyrus palustris, Parnassia palustris) (Riley and McKay 1980)	•	-	۰	SW James Bay	2E
MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA Menyanthes trifoliata 80 - Carex paleacea 3	-3			SW James Bay	2E
MYRIOPHYLLUM SIBIRICUM Myriophyllum sibiricum (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E
Myriophyllum sibiricum - Potamogeton filiformis - Ranunculus cymbalaria	8.9	(conductivity 2260 µmhos)	•	Shagamu	0E
PETASITES SAGITTATUS		2200 µ111105)			
Petasites sagittatus - Carex glareosa - C. aquatilis			•	Shagamu	OE
POTAMOGETON FILIFORMIS Potamogeton filiformis (Riley and McKay 1980)				SW James Bay	2E
SCIRPUS AMERICANUS Scirpus americanus - Sparganium chlorocarpum (Riley and McKay 1980)			٠	SW James Bay	2E
Scirpus americanus ⁴⁵ - Hordeum jubatum ³ - Ranunculus cymbalaria ²	•	•	٠	SW James Bay	2E
SCIRPUS RUFUS					
Scirpus rufus		۰	۰	Ekwan Point Shipsands	1E 2E
SENECIO CONGESTUS					
Senecio congestus		۰		Ekwan Shipsands, North Pt.	1E 2E
ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS					
Zannichellia palustris - Potamogeton filiformis - Callitriche hermaphroditica	*	•	•	Shagamu	OE-
Zannichellia palustris (Riley and McKay 1980)	•	•	•	SW James Bay	2E
NTERTIDAL MARSH CAREX GLAREOSA					
Carex glareosa - Puccinellia phryganodes - Hippuris vulgaris		· ·	٠	Shagamu	OE

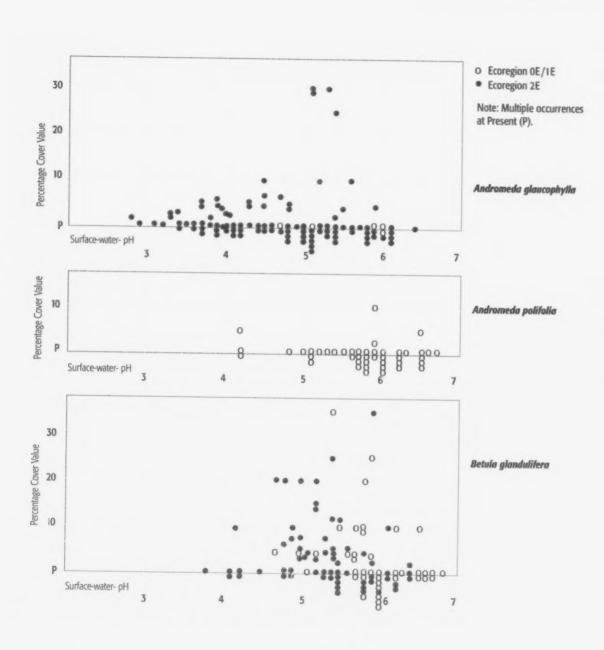
FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	range (mean) (cm)	er pH	Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
CAREX MACKENZIEI					
Carex mackenziei - C. glareosa (with Hippuris vulgaris)	6	9.4 (conductivity 2570 µmhos)	۰	Shagamu	OE 30
Carex mackenziei (Ringius 1980)				Vanishau	
CAREX PALEACEA				Kapiskau	2E
Carex paleacea (Riley and McKay 1980)	o			Ekwan Point	16
CAREY CURRENT OF THE PROPERTY				SW James Bay	2E
CAREX SUBSPATHACEA				,	
Carex subspathacea ⁶⁴ - Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica ²⁰ Puccinellia phryganodes ¹⁵ (with Festuca rubra, Dupontia fisheri)		-		Shagamu	OE
ELEOCHARIS SMALLII					
Eleocharis smallii 10-80 (Riley and McKay 1980)	•	•		Ekwan Point	18
Florchair emalli: Carried II				SW James Bay	2E
Eleocharis smallii - Carex paleacea - Hippuris vulgaris - Senecio congestus (Riley and McKay 1980)		•	۰	SW James Bay	2E
Eleocharis smallii - E. pauciflora - Juncus alpinus (Maycock 1979)					0E
HIPPURIS TETRAPHYLLA Hippuris tetraphylla ⁵⁴ - Puccinellia phryganodes ⁸ (with Potentille anserina var. groenlandica, Ranunculus cymbalaria)	7 -			Shagamu	08
Hippuris tetraphylla - Carex glareosa - Senecio congestus - C. subspathacea			,	Shagamu	OE
Hippuris tetraphylla (Riley and McKay 1980, Ringius 1980)					
POTAMOGETON FILIFORMIS - POTAMOGETON PECTINATUS Potamogeton filiformis and/or P. pectinatus				SW James Bay	2E
(with Zannichellia palustris, Ruppia maritima, Eleocharis smallii, Scirpus maritimus, Hippuris vulgaris) (Riley and McKay 1980)		*		SW James Bay	2E
POTENTILLA ANSERINA var GROENLANDICA					
Potentilla anserina var. groenlandica 40 - Puccinellia	*		*	Shagamu	0E
phryganodes ²⁰ (with Stellaria humifusa, Festuca rubra)				arra Quiria	O.L
PUCCINELLIA PHRYGANODES Puccinellia phryganodes 5-90 (with Plantago maritima,					
Carex paleacea, Potamogeton filiformis, P. pectinatus, Potentilla anserina vai. groenlandica, Scirpus maritimus, Senecio congestus) (Riley and McKay 1980)		,		SW James Bay	2E
Puccinellia phryganodes - Stellaria humifusa				Ch	
				Shagamu Ekwan Point	30
Puccinellia phryganodes - Carex glareosa				Shagamu, Fog Point	1E
Puccinellia phryganodes - Hippuris vulgaris				Shagamu	0E
Puccinellia phryganodes ³⁶ - Ranunculus cymbalaria ¹⁰ - Potentilla anserina vər. groenlandica ⁵ (Stellaria humifusa)				Shagamu	OE OE
SCIRPUS MARITIMUS Scirpus maritimus var. paludosus 10-80 (Riley and McKay 1980)					
Scirpus maritimus var. paludosus - Carex paleacea -	*		*	SW James Bay	2E
Hippuris vulgaris - Senecio congestus		*	*	SW James Bay	2E

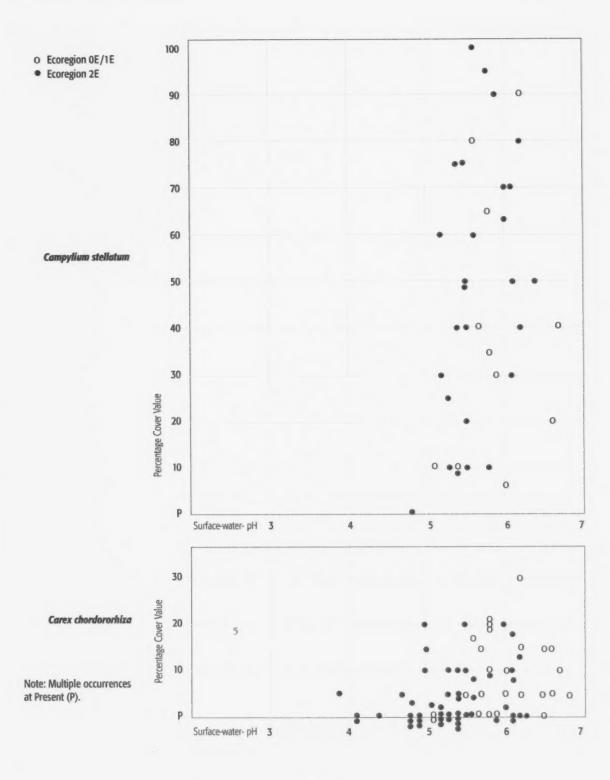
FORMATION PHYSIOGNOMIC GROUP DOMINANCE TYPE Site Type (% cover, ranges and means)	Pepth-to-water range (mean) (cm)		Peat depth range (mean) (m)	Sample sites Fig. 6 except as indicated	Ecoregion
SENECIO CONGESTUS					
Senecio congestus (Riley and McKay 1980)		•	•	SW James Bay	2E
Senecio congestus - Hippuris vulgaris	-	•	-	Shagamu	0E
ZANNICHELLIA PALUSTRIS Zannichellia palustris (Riley and McKay 1980)	•		٠	SW James Bay Ekwan Point	2E 1E
WATER					
SHALLOW WATER					
MENYANTHES TRIFOLIATA Menyanthes trifoliata – Carex paleacea			•	SW James Bay	2E
MYRIOPHYLLUM SIBIRICUM Myriophyllum sibiricum 80+			•	Shagamu	OE
Myriophyllum sibiricum - Carex aquatilis (with Potamogeton pectinatus, P. filiformis, P. pusillus)		8.4 (conductivity 790 µmhos)	-	Shagamu	0E
Myriophyllum sibiricum - Callitriche hermaphroditica - Zannichellia palustris - Ranunculus aquatilis - Potamogeton filiformis	•	9.4 (conductivity 580 µmhos)	-	Shagamu	OE
POTAMOGETON ALPINUS Leptodictyum riparium - Potamogeton alpinus - P. pusillus	up to -100			Aquatuk	1E
POTAMOGETON FILIFORMIS Potamogeton filiformis - Ranunculus aquatilis - Myriophyllum sibiricum (Maycock 1979)	-	-			OE
Potemogeton filiformis - Chara spp.				Kinoje	2E
POTAMOGETON GRAMINEUS Potamogeton gramineus - Potamogeton richardsonii	-			Kwataboahegan	2E
POTAMOGETON RICHARDSONII Potamogeton richardsonii - P. pectinatus - P. pusillus - Sagittaria cuneata (Maycock 1979)		*			OE
RANUNCULUS AQUATILIS (s.l.) Ranunculus aquatilis - Potamogeton pusillis - P. pectinatus - Myriophyllum sibiricum		7.7 (conductivity 580 µmhos)		Shagamu	OE
Ranunculus aquatilis - Potamogeton pectinatus - P. richardsonii Myriophyllum sibiricum - Callitriche hermaphroditica	i - up to -100	·	-	Aquatuk	1E
Ranunculus aquatilis s.l Hippuris vulgaris (Maycock 1979)					0E
RANUNCULUS GMELINII					-
Ranunculus gmelinii - Ranunculus hyperboreus	-		-	Shagamu	OE
DEEP WATER POTAMOGETON					
Potamogeton pectinatus - P. praelongus	>100		•	Aquatuk	1E
Potamogeton natans				Kinoje	2E
Potamogeton richardsonii - P. pectinatus	•	۰	•	Aquatuk Kinoje	1E 2E
NUPHAR					
Nuphar variegatum - Potamogeton natans	>100	6.2	•	Aquatuk	1E
Nuphar variegatum - Potamogeton natans ZOSTERA	•	٠	•	Kinoje	2E
Zostera marina		-		Offshore	1E, 2E

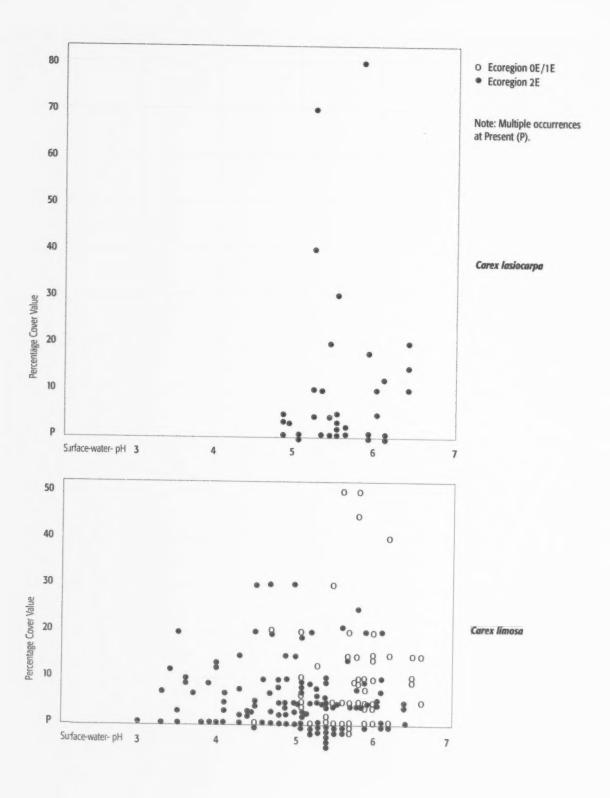
Appendix D

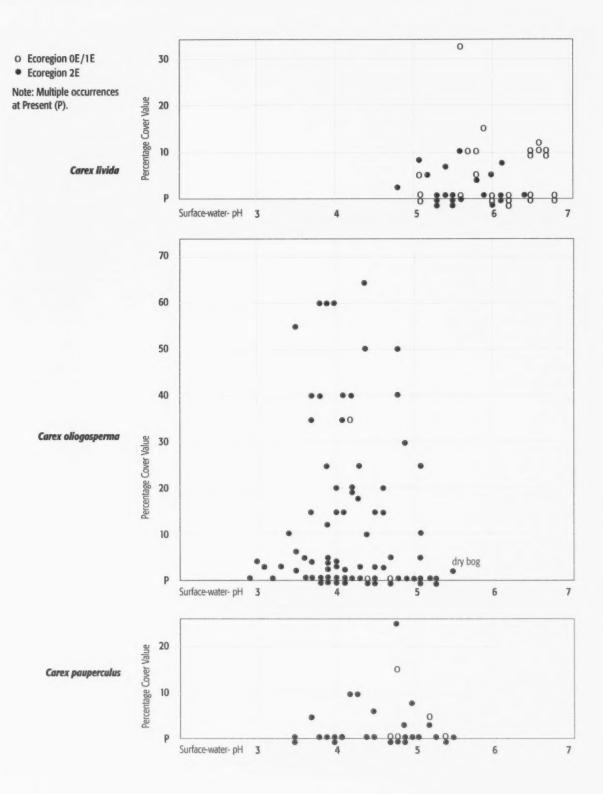
Cover Values and Surface-water pHs of Common Peatland Species

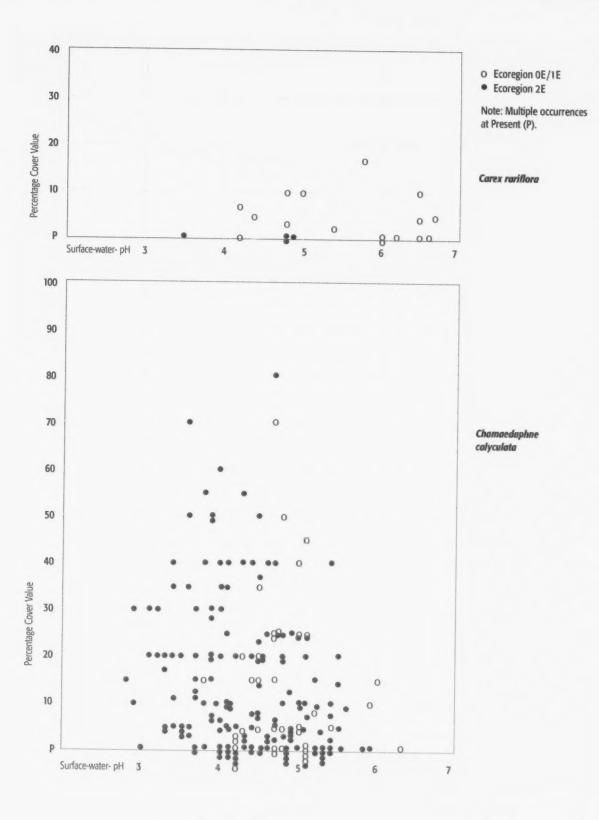
Alphabetical order by species binomial.

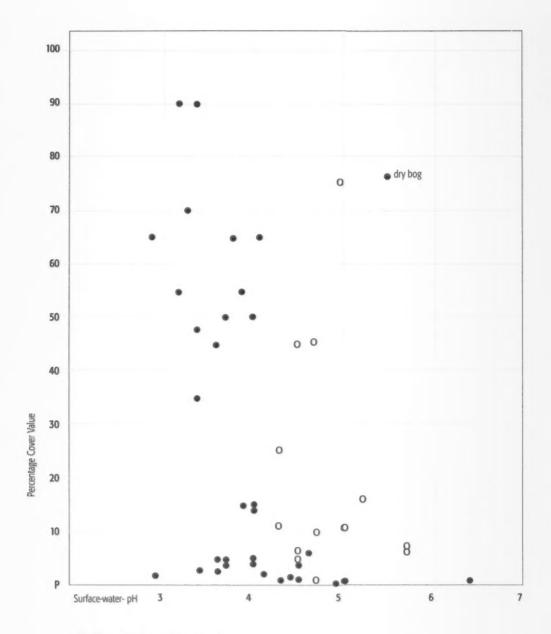






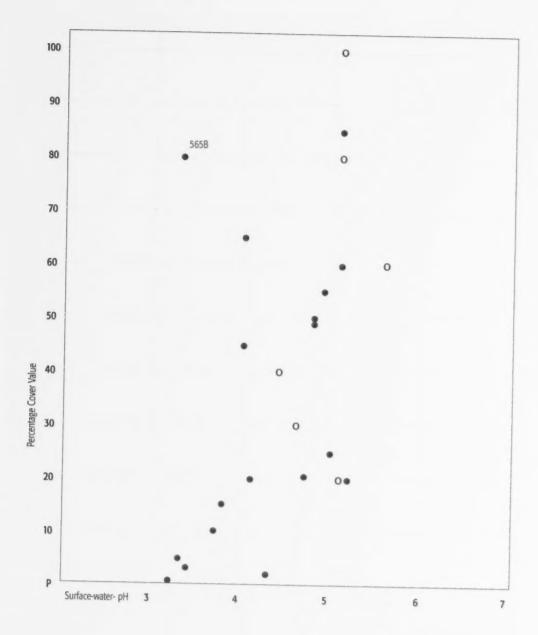






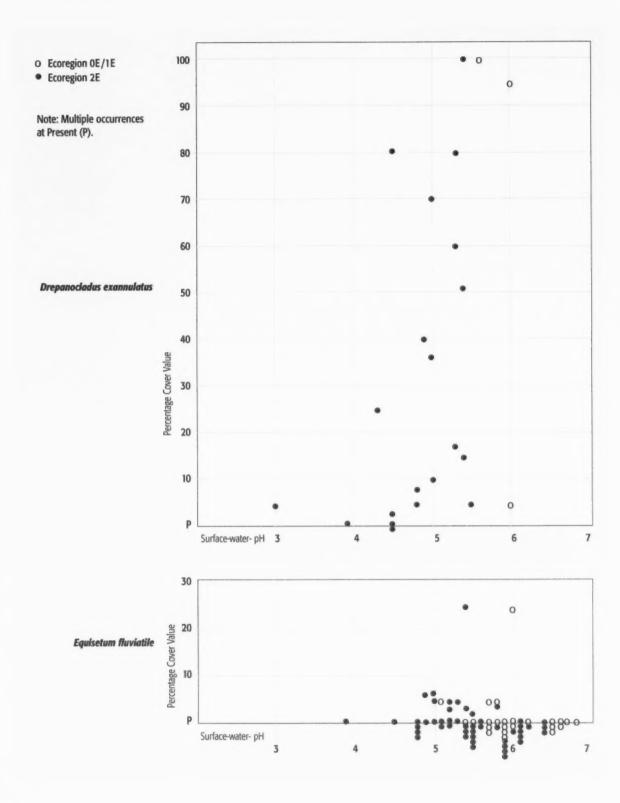
Cladina rangiferina / mitis / alpestris

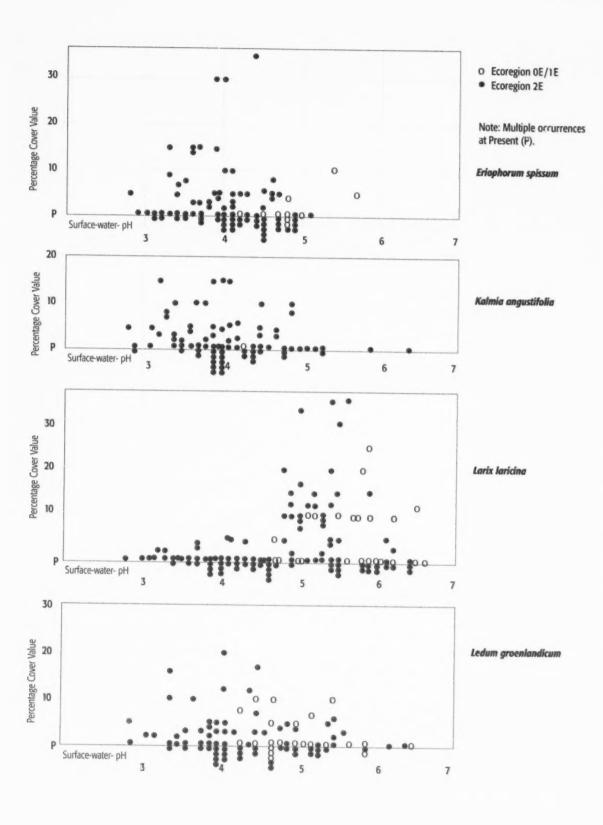
- O Ecoregion 0E/1E
 Ecoregion 2E

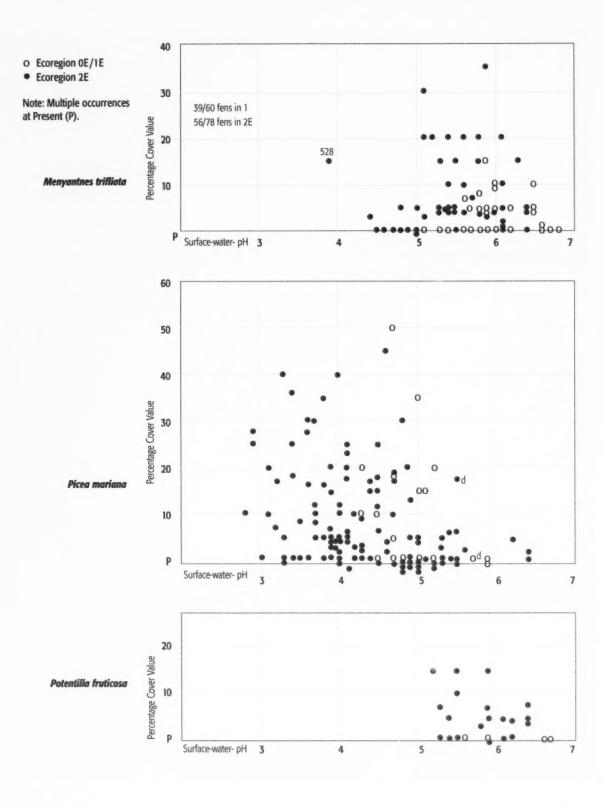


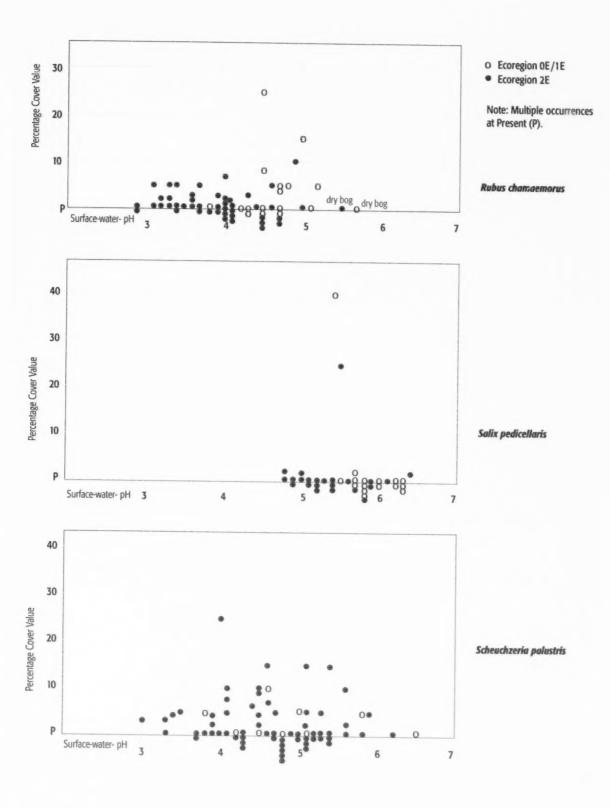
Cladopodiella fluitans

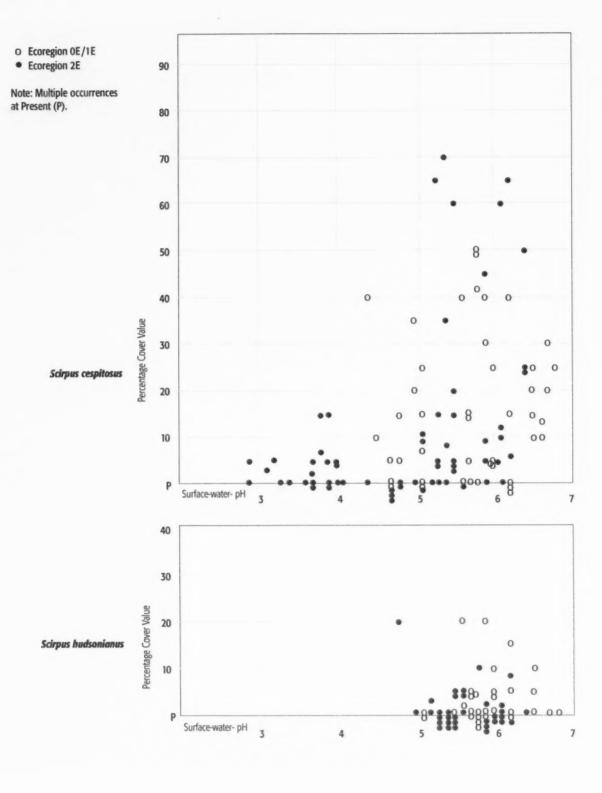
- O Ecoregion 0E/1E
 Ecoregion 2E

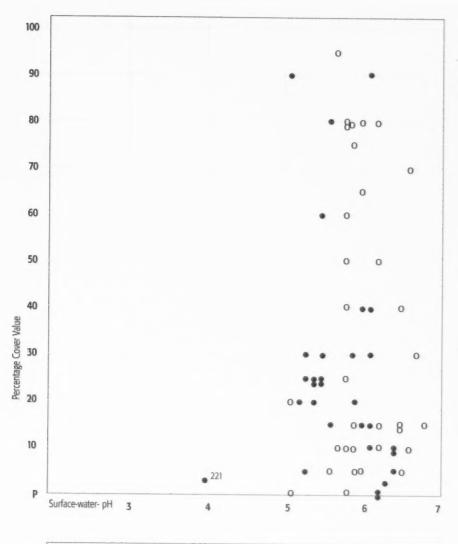








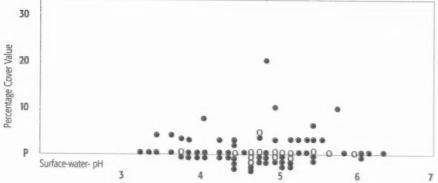




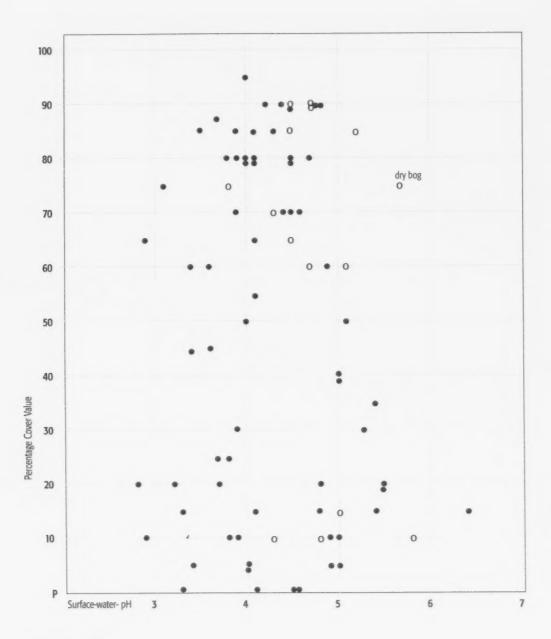
- O Ecoregion 0E/1E
 Ecoregion 2E

Note: Multiple occurrences at Present (P).

Scorpidium scorpioides

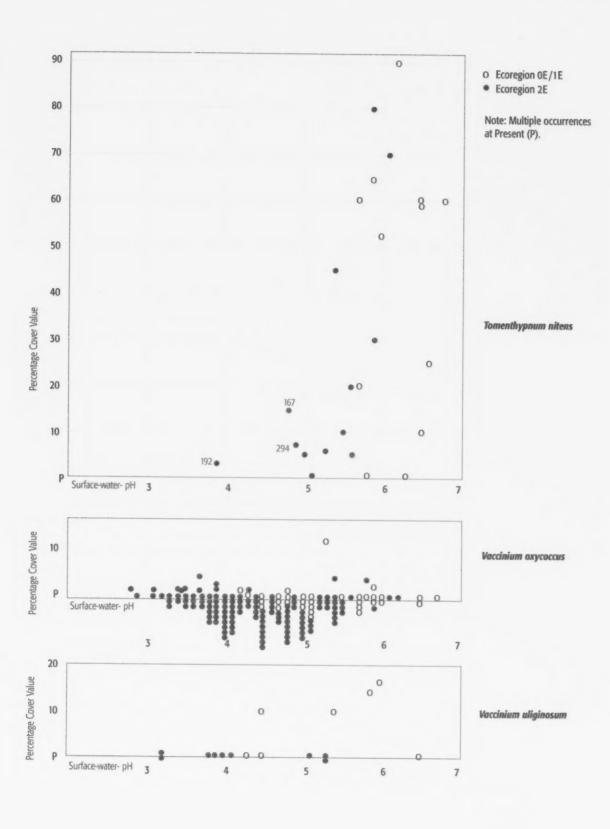


Smilacina trifolia



Sphagnum fuscum

- O Ecoregion 0E/1E
 Ecoregion 2E



Appendix E

Species Name Synonyms

The Latin binomials for vascular plants follow *The Flora of the Hudson Bay Lowland*, (Riley 2003). Synonyms are provided below, where subsequent synonyms have come into use since (*Flora North America*).

The Flora of	the Hudson	Bay Lowland	Flora North America
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Sparganium chlorocarpum S. emersum Schoenoplectus acutus Scirpus acutus Trichophorum caespitosum Scirpus cespitosus Trichophorum alpinum Scirpus hudsonianus Schoenoplectus maritimus, Bulboschoenus maritimus Scirpus maritimus Blysmus rufus Scirpus rufus Triantha glutinosa Tofieldia glutinosa Maianthemum trifolium Smilacina trifolia A. viridis ssp. crispa Alnus crispa A. incana ssp. rugosa Alnus rugosa

Salicornia europaea S. maritima

Potentilla anserina Argentina anserina

Potentilla fruticosa Dasiphora fruticosa ssp. floribunda

Pontentilla palustris Comarum palustris

Cornus stolonifera C. sericea

L. palustre ssp. decumbens

Andromeda glaucophylla

A. palustre var. glaucophylla

Rhinanthus crista-galli R. minor

Aster robbynsianus Symphyotrichum robbynsianum

Chrysanthemum arcticum Dendranthema articum

Senecio aureus Packera aurea

Senecio pauperculus Packera paupercula

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The Hudson Bay Lowland supports the world's third largest wetlands, and the largest in North America. Eighty-three percent of it lies in Ontario, at the core of the world's largest intact boreal landscape. It is one of the world's densest accumulations of peat, measurably cooling the global climate by sequestering atmospheric carbon.

More than 85% of the Lowland in Ontario is either mineral wetland or organic peatland, much of it underlain by permafrost and the vast majority of it unforested. The Lowland emerged from the sea over the last 6000 years and is emerging still, and has evolved into an unparalleled array of bogs, fens, swamps and permafrost peatlands, and along its 1290-km ocean coast, an incomparable breadth and range of intertidal and supratidal marshes.

The wetlands of this remote wilderness ecozone provide globally significant habitat for breeding, feeding and migrating waterfowl and shorebirds, as well as still hosting all of its original fish and wildlife species. Its ecological significance and the imminent pressures it faces for mineral and energy development, underscore the critical need to enhance knowledge of the Lowland in support of sound land-use decisions, community wellbeing and superior environmental assessments. This study focuses on the Lowland's dominant wetland terrain and provides a regional overview, descriptions and keys to wetland types, analyses of ecological variation and succession, and a catalogue of wetlands surveyed.

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